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ABSTRACT

Theses six TESOL Newsletters present articles on various aspects of teaching English as a Second Language. Some of the areas covered are the following: (1) teaching reading, both in the classroom and as a supplementary activity; (2) using audiovisual aids; (3) groups in the ESL classroom; (4) the use of the native language and learning a second language; (5) teaching grammar and vocabulary; (6) cultural awareness and intercultural appreciation in the classroom; (7) teaching conversation techniques; (8) homework assignments; (9) ESOL activities in the People's Republic of China; (10) lesson plans based on competencies; (11) intensive English programs and English for special purposes programs; (12) employment conditions in ESOL; and (13) a selected bibliography for teachers of ESL. (AMH)

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Larson, Darlene. and Karen O'Neill. It Works: Using the Radio.
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Coe, Norman. The Use of the Mother Tongue in ESL.
Cortez, Elilio G. The Elementary School ESL Curriculum: Let's Try for Relevance.

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TESOL

NEWSLETTER

Vol. XIII No. 1

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

February 1979

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION "NOT SURE HOW TO HANDLE ESL"

At the October meeting of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, Congressman Paul Simon enjoined the members to take bold steps to reverse the current trend of declining foreign language and international studies. Oksenberg (National Security Council) pointed out that the U.S. is becoming more parochial in its advanced research and training at a time when our foreign involvement is becoming deeper. Springsteen (FSI) suggested that languages and area studies are useful tools in finding and capturing new markets for American products. Katz (Dept. of Commerce) remarked that business schools have not been much influenced by language, that joint degrees in business and international affairs are seldom seen. Commissioner of Education Boyer commented that the problems may have their roots in the earlier years of education. Starr (Kennan Institute) summarized the current situation in the preuniversity language field by stating that the current percentage of students enrolled in language programs (16 percent) is equivalent to the situation in 1890; and that 90 percent of all language enrollments are in the first and second years of study—there is enormous attrition.

The Chairman of the President's Commission, James A. Perkins, summarized the discussions by presenting a framework outline for thinking about the problems the Commission is to investigate. He said that "there is a deep, highly important, sociopolitical problem involved in the widening disjunction in the need for international understanding which covers both language and international studies on the one hand, and the attention given on all levels of both

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BOSTON '79: MORE THAN BEANS

The TESOL '79 Local Committee has planned a series of activities to give conference-goers a taste of Boston as a center for education and culture, history and entertainment.

Margarita Muniz and Glynda Bell have arranged for visits to such programs as the Rafael Hernandez Bilingual School, the art and theater program of the Boston bilingual program, adult education centers run by model employers such as Polaroid and other centers designed to acclimate newly arrived Russian immigrants to the United States, and to university ESL programs. TESOLers will have the opportunity to meet their counterparts,

observe and share in classroom activities, and exchange ideas for enhancing the teaching of ESL at all levels and to all ages. Additionally, folk dancers and singers from Boston's ethnic communities—Chinese, Puerto Rican, Portuguese, Armenian, Greek, and others—will offer complimentary performances daily at the Sheraton-Boston, in a program coordinated by Stella Boy, of the Watertown public schools and Cecilia Soriano-Bresnahan, from the Mayor's office of Cultural Affairs.

For those interested in a historical view of Boston, several options are available. Hardy souls may pick up a guide to Boston's Freedom Trail from one of Ann Hilferty's volunteers and set off on foot for such attractions as the Paul Revere House, from which he rode forth to spread the famed alarm; the Old North Church, from whose belfry hung the two lanterns, on April 18, 1775, that told Revere that the British were attacking by sea; and the Old State House where, on July 18, 1776, eager citizens listened to the reading of the American Declaration of Independence. (We hold no grudges, however; in fact, the current curator of the Revere House is British!) A short streetcar ride from the hotel will take TESOLers to "Old Ironsides," a 44-gun frigate and the oldest commissioned ship still active in the U.S. Navy (not very active—once a year, to great fanfare and acclaim, they tow her into the harbor and turn her around so her great oak beams will weather equally).

Those with limited time may opt for one of the several bus tours arranged by Lin Loughheed, of Educational Development Center, and Caroline Banks, of the Arlington Public Schools. One half-day tour will bring participants to

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JOB INTERVIEWS AT CONVENTION '79

Job interviewing will be offered once again at the TESOL convention in the Boston-Sheraton Hotel. The Job Interview Scheduling Center in Suite 589-590 will be available from Tuesday morning (Feb. 27) until Saturday noon (Mar. 3) providing four separate rooms, each accommodating two interviews, simultaneously. Those wishing to take advantage of this opportunity to interview highly qualified candidates should write the TESOL office to reserve space and attach FIVE COPIES of the job descriptions for each position opening. Candidates are expected to bring a sufficient supply of resumé's.

Mail job openings to: TESOL, Attn: Charlotte Ball, 455 Nevils Bldg, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057.

BOSTON '79: MORE THAN BEANS

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the sites in Boston and Charlestown associated with American history; another, to Lexington and Concord, will visit literary monuments in the towns where Emerson, Thoreau, and Alcott lived and worked. Farther afield, some TESOLers may choose to visit the seaports of Marblehead and Salem, Mass., where a visit to the Witch Museum and the House of Seven Gables will recall the days when mass hysteria stalked the land; others may decide to go down to Newport-by-the-sea, and roam the corridors of the stately mansions such as the Vanderbilts' "Breakers," where "The Great Gatsby" was filmed.

On Wednesday, after the official opening of the Conference and the plenary session, some of Boston's street entertainers will welcome members of TESOL to the city with music. In addition, the improvisational theatre group, The Next Move, will devise and present a show like nothing ever before seen (if you don't believe that claim, ask any member of MATSOL to tell you about their panel discussion of "The Minimal Pairs Controversy" or their famous operetta "Bilingual Education comes to Boston.")

Highlight of the week will undoubtedly be Friday night's real old-fashioned New England clambake, held under the dome of the Great Hall at Faneuil Hall. Here, where Sam Adams and other patriots set forth in the seventeenth century to protest unfair taxes by dumping tea into Boston Harbor, TESOLers will relax in a casual atmosphere while enjoying Boston Clam Chowder (no tomatoes, please); Boiled Fresh Lobster straight from New England's icy waters (with steak substituted for those who prefer); Steamed Clams (at their best in the late winter and early spring) and other traditional New England delicacies. Local experts—members of MATSOL and their friends—will be available for instruction and advice on how best to extract every succulent morsel from the lobsters (bibs and wash 'n dries will be provided; casual dress advised).

Faneuil Hall, in addition to having historic import, is also the site of Boston's Quincy Market, with boutiques, crafts, and variety items from all over the world. For those who have been unable to visit it during the week, buses will begin to shuttle participants down to the marketplace late Friday afternoon, allowing time to tour before the clambake. This will also be a good time to visit "Where's Boston?" a nationally acclaimed multi-media presentation originally prepared for the Bicentennial celebration but still popular. In this presentation, viewers get a cap-

sule tour of Boston's neighborhoods, seeing Arthur Fiedler and the Pops, Chinatown, Beacon Hill, etc. without having to brave the cold weather.

Meanwhile, upstairs under the great dome, the clambake will be prepared: Bostonians agree that it is more fun to eat their seafood delicacies in the informal style of a clambake—with local banjo players offering an appropriate selection of country music—than to treat such natural delicacies formally. Nevertheless, dancing will be featured after the meal—not just country dancing but salsa and other more traditional dances that TESOLers enjoy at every convention. Those who then wish to return to the hotel may do so; others may choose to try out some late-night disco's and after-hours spots both in Quincy Market and in the nearby North End. Included in the cost of the clambake, which is substituting for the banquet this year, will be free transportation to and from Quincy Market, as well as the entertainment and dancing during the evening. Members of the local committee hope that as many TESOLers as possible—and especially those who have never been to Boston before—will join them in this uniquely and distinctively New England experience.

Of course, the committee is aware that the TESOL convention is not only representative of New England but of all nations: as a result, they are particularly happy that the Navajo Nation will be sending a choir of secondary school students to sing traditional and other Navajo songs during the opening session of the conference. Members of the Boston Indian Council and local families are particularly looking forward to hosting the students in their homes and showing them Boston, a far cry from Arizona, their home.

Of course, no visit to Boston is complete without at least one visit to either the opera, the theatre, or the symphony. Members of the local committee have already contacted box offices and theatrical agencies in Boston and will have up-to-date information not only on pre- and post-Broadway events but also on the many free or nearly free university performances available to the public during the week of convention. If medieval music is your favorite—or jazz—or funky rock—somewhere in Boston during the convention week there is bound to be a concert to suit your taste and we will ferret it out for you.

Those who are staying for Sunday morning may enjoy strolling over to the Christian Science Church next to the hotel and hearing a delightful organ concert to start their day; others may want to spend their last moments in Boston at the museum of Fine Arts, lost in contemplation of Monet and Manet.

No matter the weather, you are assured of a warm welcome in Boston February 27-March 4. We look forward to seeing you then. TN 2/79

Amy Lezberg
Raffael DeGruttola

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION

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formal and informal education with respect to these matters on the other." Language and international studies form an extremely complex and sensitive area. At least four interests expressly concern the Commission, according to Perkins. They are:

1. The national purpose—public and commercial policies, foreign aid, etc.—that range through government departments.

2. The trend in international commerce is toward interdependence, necessitating more understanding of the peoples of the world.

3. Societies are likely to dry up if they do not understand and have compassion for the rest of the world.

4. The individual in the U.S. is going to have to understand the world around him and judge it in an international perspective if he is to deal with it.

Perkins said that in order to achieve these ends the following means must be investigated: the entire educational process; the entire gamut of foreign languages and their sub-problems; the public dissemination of information; and potential government reorganization.

Perkins originally emphasized specifically that English as a second language would be one of the important concerns of the Commission and would be included in their deliberations. Later, at a meeting of the Modern Language Association held on December 28, Chairman of the Commission Perkins singled out ESL as one of three areas that he announced the Commission was "not sure how to handle."

Regional hearings of the Commission are scheduled for: February 23 at the World Affairs Council, 312 Sutter Street, San Francisco; February 24 at the Defense Language Institute, 338 Fitch Avenue, Monterey, CA; March at the Hyatt Regency Hotel, Louisiana and Polk Streets, Houston, TX; April 12-13 at the North Carolina State University Faculty Club, 4200 Hillsborough, Raleigh, NC; and May 4 at the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, Tufts University, Medford, MA (outside Boston). These meetings are open to the public. TESOL has affiliates in each of the states and members in each of the cities announced. It is important that arrangements be made for official representation or at least the presence of some TESOL person at each of these meetings

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A WORKSHOP IS WORK

Richard Yorkey
Concordia University, Montreal

Workshops are a common feature of many ESL conferences and in-service training programs. They can be an exciting experience and a valuable way of upgrading professional skills, provided the participants are satisfied that they have had the chance to learn. In the case of workshops, *learning most definitely means doing!* That is the expectation of most of the teachers who sign up to attend; they expect to participate, to learn by doing. Unfortunately, judging from the many murmurs of discontent at conferences, it seems that some workshops do not live up to the participants' expectations.

Some workshops probably disappoint participants because of the presenter's failure to understand what a workshop is—or what it should be. By definition, a workshop involves application, involvement, active participation and practice—in short, work! Participants do not expect to sit passively and listen to a theoretical paper being read or a topic being discussed by a panel. A workshop is a kind of “hands on” opportunity to learn by doing.

The key to conducting a successful workshop is probably divided among (1) choosing an appropriate topic and defining it in practical terms, (2) avoiding a teacher-centered, lecture-like presentation, and (3) carefully planning a sequence of activities in which participants have the chance to actually apply and practice the ideas that have first been described and demonstrated.

Certain areas in the field of ESL lend themselves more readily to workshops than others. A session entitled “What is Applied Linguistics?” is more suitable for a paper, seminar or round-table discussion. “English for Occupational Purposes” is likely to be more a presentation and discussion with occasional examples than a workshop in which participants actually get practice in preparing special materials for special purposes. Even “Jazz Chanting” is no more than an interesting demonstration unless participants have the opportunity not only to observe the technique but also to practice it, not as students but as teachers, and perhaps to prepare their own jazz chants for practice and criticism.

The Workshop Topic

All important is the selection of your topic. You may be asked by conference organizers or a school committee to present a workshop or some particular topic or you may make the choice yourself. In either case, consider the selection from the viewpoint of skills rather

than of knowledge. Certainly there may be need to introduce some background information, some brief explanation of the theoretical basis for your topic, but the main emphasis should be on the application of theory to a practical situation, usually as a classroom activity. Obviously your topic should be one with which you are personally familiar and have sufficient practical experience, and which you want to share with other teachers.

The Participants

Specify the participants you have in mind and the number you can handle in the workshop. For example, is your workshop intended for teachers of elementary, secondary, or adult students?, untrained teachers, experienced administrators? So that participants can make an informed choice of workshops they wish to attend, this kind of information is usually published in the conference program or clearly announced in advance. Even so, it is wise to expect a fairly wide range of interests and expectations.

If possible, before the workshop try to get from the conference organizers some idea of the background and needs of the participants. What kind of education and training can you expect? What schools or programs do they teach in? What books and materials are used? In national conferences, answers to questions like these will vary considerably. In local school systems, the needs, interests, and expectations can be more accurately identified and the participants are likely to be more homogeneous.

The Presentation

Narrow your topic down to the amount of time available, and divide your time between (1) background information, (2) explanation and demonstration, (3) participants' practice, and (4) final questions and discussion. This division and the proportionate amount of time will, of course, vary depending on the topic, but as a general rule of thumb, the following comments may be useful.

Background information should be presented as cogently as possible. Your purpose is not to impress the participants with the extent of your knowledge, the range of your reading, or the brilliance of your teaching. Your purpose is to provide only the theoretical or empirical basis of the activity you intend to present and practice. This may be best done by handouts, overhead transparencies, or by simple explanation. It should not take more than 10-15% of your time.

Explanation and demonstration may follow directly from the background information. Your purpose here is to show

what and how and it's also a good idea to explain when. A workshop focuses on only one of the many aspects of ESL, and the presenter is naturally enthusiastic and convincing about this narrowly defined topic. Participants may misunderstand the proportionate amount of time or emphasis that should be given to the activity during their regular teaching. For example, “How to Make and Use Puppets” may be an interesting, worthwhile workshop, but it should not be assumed that puppets are the best or the only way to teach ESL to elementary students. “Jazz Chanting” may be an immensely popular workshop, but the technique should be interpreted only as a novel way to teach the rhythms of English and should not be overused. Or “The Silent Way” may be an innovative approach but its appropriateness or potential success must be viewed from the perspective of your own particular situation; is it completely applicable, or if it is adapted in any way, will it still be successful or better than some other approach?

Practice. The proportion of time allotted to explanation and demonstration depends on your topic. A rule of thumb might be to devote 50% of the workshop time for practice. The kind of practical work that participants do depends, of course, on the topic of the workshop. While planning practice activities, however, ask yourself the following questions:

In order to benefit from your ideas, what must the participants do? What kinds of activities will give them insight into the pedagogical value of the ideas and help them understand the procedures of the activity?

Can they do what they need to do in large groups, small groups, or individually?

What kind of space and room arrangements are necessary?

What special equipment and materials will be necessary? What can the conference or school authorities provide, and what must you yourself provide?

Can you handle the participation activities yourself, or will you need some assistance? If so, who?

Questions and Discussion. Allow time at the end for questions and discussion. By the very nature of a workshop, questions and comments are likely to occur throughout. Handle them as they arise, since they are the most meaningful at that moment. But also keep track of the time so that there can be a general summing up at the end. Although for the purpose of demonstration and practice you may have considered the participants as students, remember that they are actually your professional colleagues with varying kinds and amounts of experience. The chance for their per-

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Green English: Spoken Standard English as a Second Dialect

By Donald Maxwell
Reynolds Community College
Richmond, Virginia

Even after all this time there is still the argument over what constitutes good English, an argument that too often works to the disadvantage of already disadvantaged students.

Most speakers of English insist that there is "correct" English and that there is "bad grammar." Furthermore, most speakers of "correct" English are elitists who equate such speech with good education, background, and in some special way with virtue. To them, "bad grammar" implies defects in all of those traits. They talk about "purity" and "standards," and seem more interested in testing than in teaching.

On the other side of the argument are those who have become enlightened about regional and ethnic dialects of English. They speak about "White English" and "Black English." Some even understand that students have the right to their own language. And in fact most enlightened English teachers, rather than condemning students not fluent in the so-called "standard" dialect, try to teach them to use it.

We succeed by being neither elitist nor idealistic; but pragmatic. Our students need to be able to land and hold the white-collar jobs they are educated for, so whatever their native language or dialect we prepare them to operate in "Green English," the dialect of economic power.

Green English is the language spoken in Wall Street, in IT & T, General Motors, EXXON, Safeway, the Bank of America. It sounds neither white nor black; it sounds like money, and it is the access code to economic power. That may seem obvious to you—or it may not. Just to be sure that we understand each other, let me review in the next paragraph the relationship between language and power, and then I'll go right on to the specific details of a course in spoken "Green English."

In the army I learned that there are three ways of doing things: the right way, the wrong way, and the army way. In a sense, those ways are analogous to the ways people feel about English. In the right way—the ideal—all of us have the right to speak as we wish. In the wrong way—the real situation—the only rights are made by might, by power, and that usually means economic power. It has nearly always been true that people who have economic power

make everyone else speak as they do. Or, to say it the other way around, the most likely way to gain economic power is to learn the language of the powerful.

That is what we do for our underpowered students: help them gain access to economic power—because we believe that they have the right to access. And that brings us to the army way of doing things. It might not be subtle, it might not please everyone, but it seems to get results. We call it "Studies in Pronunciation and Dialect." It's a three-credit elective speech course, and the credit count toward graduation in place of the regular required speech course. Most of these students are preparing to be executive secretaries, court reporters, legal secretaries, and the like. They can do everything in their fields, but they can't get jobs—or keep them, or get promoted—because of the way they speak.

One more thing about these students: they all want the course. They have to ask for it in order to get into it. They all can write "standard" English fairly well. Nearly all of them have gone through a developmental writing program and a course in college composition. Because most of the students will come in feeling—in an academic sense—somewhat stupid and inferior, a lot of time is spent on preparing them for the course; demonstrating that there *are* dialects, using recordings, imitations, and native speakers, trying to make the students feel good about their own dialects, encouraging them to teach the instructor and other students to speak as they do, and by spending as much time as necessary in getting acquainted, in making everyone feel comfortable with each other.

One good way to do this is to introduce the concept of "International English," a term less cynical than "Green English." Although in a strict sense there may not really be such a thing as "International English," using the term avoids the awkward problem of local or ethnic dialects seeming to be inferior to the "standard" (white) dialect. At the same time, it keeps the students thinking about gaining access to the business world—which is, after all, international. (*The People's Almanac* identifies several corporations as "countries.")

Have each student take a new identity for the entire course—a new identity that fits the top level of the student's target occupation. With your help if necessary, the student should choose a new name, a new address, a new family, and so on. Being someone else frees the students from the need to defend themselves, and therefore they can learn much more effectively.

Then start to work on the dialect. At

first, we do a lot of drills based on *Keys to American English*, by Constance Gefvert, Richard Raspa, and Amy Richards, which we use in our developmental writing program. Do recognition drills first, so that the students can distinguish between what Gefvert calls "community dialect" and the "standard dialect." Then substitution drills and other pattern drills.

The drills are mainly to point out differences in the dialects—verb forms, plurals, aspect and tense marking, question word order, and constructions like "It isn't any more books left."

As soon as possible, begin role-playing in alternation with more drills. The plays mostly should involve situations that simulate future reality for the students in their new identities. The situations should be outlined by the students, with the teacher trying to stay out of things as much as possible. It is often good to have outsiders—generally from the business world—play parts. Sometimes *all* roles can be played by native speakers of "International English," while the students study their language and behavior. If possible, videotape each play and have the students watch it several times so that they can get over being conscious of themselves and can concentrate on the language and behavior.

Also be sure to work on *unspoken* International English. The teacher introduces this when necessary, but most students become aware of some differences right away—obviously the handshake. Try to work into the plays awareness of differences in eye contact, proxemics, laughter, touching, posture, walk, and also customs dealing with time, regularity, attitudes toward the job, and so on.

Finally, because ours is a credit course, we have to arrive at a final grade. Right from the start, we assure the students that if they get involved in everything and complete everything, they will get at least a C for the course. We give them an oral test about the time we begin drilling and again at the end of the course. If at the end they score as high as a native speaker of "International English" they get an A. A lower score gets them a B. Grading is pretty arbitrary; but most students get B's.

This course in "Green English"—the "International" dialect—does not work wonders. It does not make a black woman as employable as a white man. But it does work. By the end of the course our students can converse a lot better in the "standard" dialect than before, and they are able to operate with more self confidence. They have a substantially better chance for access to green power—which is what they came to college for in the first place.

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IT WORKS

By Darlene Larson
New York University

Readers may recall IT WORKS from Vol. XII, No. 3 in which we featured different teachers' use of the all-news radio stations in their areas. We are pleased to print this follow-up to that column, from Karen O'Neill of Palo Alto, California. Considerably more preparation is involved in O'Neill's strategies than in the ones featured previously, but the results obtained in vocabulary development, cultural understanding, outlining and note-taking, as well as listening comprehension, appear to justify the effort.

While listening comprehension is usually the first skill to be acquired in any language learning situation, intermediate and advanced learners often remain frustrated with their level of listening comprehension. Personal conversations and communications which can be predicted from common knowledge and non-linguistic clues may be easily understood, but radio broadcasts, public announcements, and lectures may be unintelligible to even the more advanced students. Most students recognize the importance of understanding completely such things as announcements made over public address systems, as well as news broadcasts and lectures. It is in these situations, however, that the language learner has only one pass at the information, there is no opportunity to ask for a slower repetition or the explanation of a particular idiom. The typical response by the learner to these situations would be to "tune out" completely rather than listen to a seemingly meaningless barrage. In an advanced class (mixed language backgrounds) of listening comprehension we used songs, taped lectures, and problem solving—but the most successful were the news broadcast exercises.

I have found even advanced students to be frustrated with their attempts to listen to radio broadcasts, and very appreciative of the opportunity to sharpen their skills in this type of listening. These are students who can understand normal American speech, but yet report that their comprehension of public speeches or broadcasts is only 30-40%. In one four-week intensive program we worked specifically on understanding radio news programs with successful results in improved listening comprehension as well as impressive increases in vocabulary development, cultural understanding, and up-to-the-minute idiomatic usage.

The class met in the early afternoon

three days a week. I recorded the morning news, weather, and sometimes feature announcements from a local radio station on a cassette before class. By recording the programs daily I insured that the material would be timely and fresh, and new to the students. I also gave the students a weekly radio schedule and encouraged them to tune in on their free time. Most radio stations have a set format and present the news in a regular sequence. For example, one station may always start with the time, go on to the local weather, have a commercial, then give the news before moving on to editorials, book reviews, traffic reports, movie critiques, etc. Knowing what type of information to expect in a news program and the possible sequencing is important in decoding the fast-talking D.J. I recorded the news from the same station several different times so that students would become accustomed to the format of a particular program. We also discussed introductory and transitional phrases which are commonly used on the radio to switch from one topic to another. "What's in store for us over the weekend, Jack?", for example, is a rather typical introduction to a weather prediction report.

One of the greatest difficulties the students had was in determining when one news item ended and the next began. Most stations give a preview of the news to be included in the program in the form of "headlines" before the actual news presentation begins. Preparing students to hear about weather, commuter traffic conditions, sports, and news helped divide the departments, and "tuning in" to the headlines guided the item by item breakdown of the news itself. To help students further recognize each different news item I passed out outlines of the news as we listened to the tape. For the first few sessions with the recorded radio broadcasts the outlines noted the sequence of items and listed key words to center their listening on important facts. I stopped the tape several times during the ten-minute program to make sure that everyone was following the outline and understanding major points. Comprehension questions each time we stopped allowed students to fill in details that were not included in my outline. The outline also included commercials, which were the most difficult for the students to understand. After we had listened to and discussed each item, we listened to the tape again without stopping.

The first outlines were rather complete. Later, the outlines were in the form of basic topics with guiding questions which asked students to listen for who, what, when, where, and why. In this way, even while there were new idioms to be discussed, the first listening

focused on the informative facts. Questions on commercials asked for the names of the product and the sponsor and the function of the product. Students complete these outlines by filling in short answers to the "wh" questions. In the final exercises with the recorded broadcasts, students wrote their own outlines and then referred to them in our discussion. The earlier practice in listening for who, what, when, where, and why shaped their outlines while allowing them to fill in details as they could. After the first listening with the students taking their own notes we reviewed together what they had gleaned before listening again for more details. The use of outlines was central to the listening comprehension exercises while giving the bonus of familiarity with outline form and practice in quick note-taking.

The radio broadcasts were particularly valuable in providing meaningful material for subjects other than listening comprehension. The vocabulary lessons which grew from these exercises gave students new idioms, acronyms, and recently coined words. "The dark horse candidate" who "threw his hat in the ring" produced puzzled looks throughout the room and presented new idioms to even the most advanced student in the class. The news was also filled with newly coined phrases such as "teach-in" and introduced the manner in which the not-too-old "sit-in" had spawned a fresh variety of noun. Acronyms such as P.T.A. which are part of plain English to any native speaker were eagerly noted. The radio programs were a great way to pump contemporary American life into classroom lessons.

The commercials provided not only the most unusual vocabulary additions, but also many cultural comments. Everything from traveler's checks to pet vitamins were advertised in our sessions giving students a diverse look at product promotion. Students reported that the ads were the most difficult to understand, but provided the most useful information since knowing the brand name of a product made shopping more convenient. A greater understanding of national current events also helped ease the students into the American cultural setting. While most of our time was spent on news and weather, we also listened to editorials, book reviews, movie critiques, and feature stories. The editorials often tied in with the news providing ready examples of linguistic differences between reporting facts and expressing opinions. Book and movie reviews were also fine examples of expressing opinions, enthusiasm, and polite rejection. Feature stories expanded on topics of general human interest—often reflecting a current trend in social

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IT WORKS

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styles, medicine, or business. Jogging was one of the features which launched a group discussion of a recent American mania. The features usually include a few moments of taped interview which add another register to the typical radio narration.

Near the end of the course one of the students asked if I were playing the radio broadcasts at a slower speed. She couldn't believe how much she was able to understand. All students commented that the news exercises were the most useful and helpful part of the class. On the last day of the intensive program students presented skits. The group that had had this radio listening practice surprised me by producing a fifteen-minute comic news radio program complete with weather, traffic reports, interviews, and a toilet paper commercial!

I found the radio news to be a great resource for listening comprehension practice, for cultural interchanges, and for vocabulary additions for advanced students. The students were delighted with the ease with which they came to understand radio broadcasts and with the opportunity this developed skill gave them to understand more of American culture and issues. They also became adept at listening for important facts and taking notes in outline form. What's more, we all enjoyed it!

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JOURNALS AND NEWSLETTERS

English Teaching Newsletter. Newsletter continuing articles and information on English learning. Write to the Ministry of Education, Centro de Perfeccionamiento Experimentaciones e Investigaciones Pedagogicas, Dept. of English, Casilla 16162, Correo 9, Santiago, Chile.

APL/ESL Newsletter. (S) A new publication primarily interested in Adult Performance Level Life skills performance evaluation techniques, materials and programs; related to and interested in evaluation of competency (Competency Based Education) particularly in English. Write to Editor, Kishwaukee College, Malta Rd., Malta, Illinois 60150.

ESL in Higher Education. (M) The newsletter of the TESOL Special Interest Group of ESL in Higher Ed. First issue was Oct. 1978 Is looking for "Contributing Editors" from various regions of the US, SA, etc. Write to Editor, Dept. of Academic Skills, Herbert H. Lehman College, CUNY, Bronx, NY 10468.

Editor's Note: We will continue to update the article "Journals, Newsletters and Other ESL Publications" printed in the November issue 1978 (Vol. XII, No. 5) in this column as new publications or new information about previously listed publications come to our attention. John Haskell

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LONG RANGE PLANNING COMMITTEE FOR TESOL

A TESOL Committee on Long Range Planning has been appointed to consider and make proposals to the Executive Committee concerning long term planning for TESOL. We have been asked to look carefully at our present situation and to think about future directions of the organization. Some of the matters we will be discussing are:

What consequences might we face with continued growth?

Can we predict our future membership and therefore our future financial structure?

How should we plan financially for the future?

What should be the relationship of the affiliates to the parent organization?

At the Boston Convention one formal session and two informal sessions are scheduled as follows: Open Session: Friday, March 2, 4-5:00, Beacon F; Informal Sessions: Thursday, March 1, 3-5:00, Board Room; Friday, March 2, 10-12:00, Board Room.

Any ideas or comments from members who cannot attend the convention will be welcome. Please write: Betty Wallace Robinett, Department of Linguistics, University of Minnesota, 320 16th Avenue S.E., Minneapolis, MN 55455

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THE ROLE OF HANDWRITING IN TESOL

By Hector Nevarez and Virginia Berk
Defense Language Institute

Curtis W. Hayes
University of Texas: San Antonio

Christina Bratt Paulson and Gerald Dykstra in their text, *Controlled Composition in English as a Second Language*, submit that "Old-fashioned insistence on penmanship (however pedantic and childish it may seem to the instructor) . . . quickly pays off—especially with students whose native alphabet is not Roman". Our paper directly concerns itself with this "old-fashioned insistence," the teaching of cursive handwriting, a particular motor skill that students must acquire if they are to record with facility what they want to communicate. Lack of good, or even adequate handwriting functions as a distractor. Poor or nonnative handwriting distracts from what is being written.

While cursive skills are important for most English as a second language learners, it is an important, even crucial skill for learners who are literate in their own language but who still experience difficulty in transferring those skills to English because their own native writing system is non-alphabetic. For ex-

ample, Middle Eastern learners often experience difficulties with alphabetic writing systems, and it is these difficulties, and our proposed solution to them, that we wish to address here. The reason for the difficulties are the following:

1. Arabic, the language that most Middle Easterners write, is written from right to left. This right to left orientation causes two problems: first is the fact that the "stream of writing" is opposite that in an alphabetic system. Second, once students are over this hurdle, they still must write or "draw" the graphemes in the appropriate direction. Many, if not most of the learners, do not.
2. Vowels in the Arabic writing system are not usually indicated, while they are indicated in English.
3. And finally, Arabic writing moves in strokes rather than in a continuous, cursive flow.

It is important to the Middle Easterner that he learn to write. The culture of the Middle East, as does that of China and Japan, views writing as a form of art; also students may feel that they are inhibited in their learning of English until they learn or are taught to read and write. Middle Eastern writ-

ing of English graphemes tends to resemble the following sample.

The narrative of the sample is understandable—it is not perfect—but we are distracted, initially, by a number of common aberrations that the Middle Easterner exhibits in his writing. We will use the same sample to indicate the kinds of errors that are common:

1. In the sample we can see that the writing occasionally wanders above and below the line.
2. There are a number of letters which are incorrectly formed indicated by ∇ (in sample).
3. There is incorrect spacing between words and sentences (indicated by Δ).
4. And finally there is a lack of proportion in the size and shape of graphemes which are circled.

Faced in our teaching with a large number of Middle Eastern students who are literate in their own language, who need to learn how to write understandable prose, and who had expressed an earnest desire to learn the skills associated with composing, we decided to conduct a ten-day experiment in teaching handwriting skills. We devoted one-half an hour per day to instructing the students.

We found in our examination of texts and journals before we began our experiment very little written concerning this very important motor skill. In some texts designed for the ESL teacher, handwriting is mentioned, it seems, only in passing. Without instruction in handwriting, students will, as we have found, make certain idiosyncratic aberrations in their handwriting that can distract, confuse, and even "put off" the reader.

Our first decision was whether to teach printing or cursive writing. In elementary school, block printing is taught before cursive handwriting; however, Wilga Rivers points out that one of the differences between young children and adult learners is one of physical maturity or motor refinement: adults can handle cursive writing more readily than very young children.

As we have seen, students whose first written language is Arabic write from right to left. Salaha El Araby, who works extensively with Middle Eastern students, feels that the continuous contact of cursive writing has a tendency to counteract the directional habits of these students. Dorothy Emerson, whose writing handbook we employed and from whom we extracted our models,

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I am ~~DLI~~ from I am I am I am I am
 in 1948 in I am the capital of I am. I finish
 elementary school and high school in
 I am and then came in to the air force in 6
 years (90) and finish my ^{high} school in the military
 course and also finished another I D B course
 in I am and after some months I was asked
 to come here (90) I D B course in English
 I have a brother in the air force he is in I am
 control I have three brothers and two
 sisters that are in the air force. I am I am I am I am



HANDWRITING

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also argues for cursive writing rather than disjointed printing, in order to reduce any difficulties which might arise from reversal of form of letter or sequences of letters. Emerson also believes that continuous contact with the writing surface, which is not the case in printing, reinforces directional patterns.

And finally, our students wanted to learn cursive writing because they need it for a variety of functions, such as report writing, rapid note taking, and signatures. Our students also felt that cursive writing appeared more artistic and mature, and they argued against printing. Here, certainly, the affective variable was important and visible.

From our perspective as teachers of TESL, we were interested in eliciting data in order to determine whether 1. cursive writing could be successfully taught to students with little or no proficiency in English; 2. instruction in cursive would enhance the achievement of lesson objectives as stated or would provide, perhaps, an irritating distraction; 3. minimal guidance by the teacher but with much practice by the student would result in improved legibility and perhaps lead to better performance of all language skills; 4. students would react to handwriting lessons in a positive manner. With these questions, we began. We proceeded on the notion that students first had to "see" and practice the features of cursive script. For this purpose we worked from two models of handwriting, the first exhibiting a large model of a word or phrase so that the proportionate size of the letters, position of the letters *vis a vis* the line, and junctures between letters, words, and sentences would be easily observed. Once students were aware of these features we reduced the size of the model to normal so that the authenticity of normal handwriting would not be lost. We also made certain that proper capitalization and punctuation rules were learned and followed.

We did not, however, demonstrate overtly in our models the way that letters were formed. "Overtly" is the key word, as oftentimes cursive handbooks will indicate by arrows the direction that the writing implement follows in forming a letter and how a letter is made contiguous with a following letter. Rather than place what we felt might be a distractive direction on the letter, we had our students instead trace along with us the proper direction and way to form the letters. Since this was one of the ways our students had learned to write in Arabic, we felt that such a kinesically based exercise would

parallel a learning style from their own culture. And it seemed to work.

We did not talk at length about forming individual letters but merely demonstrated in a number of examples, on the board, on paper, how a letter was made. We always demonstrated letter formation within a word, or at the beginning of a word, or the beginning of a sentence. Errors were not flagged nor did we correct.

Conclusions

Over a time period of ten days, and within the one-half hour of class time assigned to the teaching of this skill, we taught handwriting. Although, as might be expected, the refinement of separate letters and spacing were not perfected by the end of the tenth day, we were encouraged by the product, and our students, more importantly, were encouraged, despite some errors or aberrations which remained. The tenth trial showed marked improvement in general appearance of handwriting of all our students.

For the ESL teacher, especially the one who is teaching students of a language that has a different system of writing than English, there are a number of principles that can be derived from the attempt to teach Middle Eastern students the mechanics of writing cursively:

1. We did not teach, nor did we encourage, the making or practicing of single letters in isolation. Rather we encouraged the practicing of letters only in conjunction with other letters: at the beginning, within, and at the end of words; and at the beginning of sentences. We purposely directed students away from the details of letter formation and made them, perhaps as a result, aware of what real and adequate handwriting looked like.

2. The lack of focus on individual letters allowed students to match the model in their own way. Certainly, a real world fact is that there are various aesthetic and adequate models of handwriting. We were looking not so much for a perfect fit with our models but for a model that was idiosyncratically American.

3. Scores on the examination did improve, but whether the improvement was caused by an emphasis on the written model or teacher-student enthusiasm, or both, we would not want to hazard a guess at the present time. We would hope that all factors contributed, though.

We have maintained that handwriting can be improved to the point where it is in harmony with what a reader would accept as good and adequate, within a very short period of time devoted to instruction; that writing may

encourage the acquisition of other language skills, perhaps for the reason that students are writing down vocabulary; and that handwriting is best taught in our view by having students write words, phrases, and sentences rather than by having them laboriously copying single letters. The affective variable is important. Students who could see the need for skill in handwriting learned rapidly. Finally, we would like to suggest that the development of cursive writing lessons can easily be accomplished by any teacher, for any language group, for any text, at all levels.

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WORKSHOPS

Continued from page 3

sonal reactions and professional feedback is an important feature of a workshop—for yourself and the participants.

Miscellaneous Suggestions

It is difficult to plan your time as closely as you can for reading a paper, but you can probably arrive at an approximate distribution of time. It is better to plan more than you may have time to do. Otherwise, the workshop may flounder and drift as you extemporize. On the other hand, do not plan so much that the work is hurried, unfocused, and undeveloped.

Check the room carefully before the workshop begins and ask yourself these questions: Are the chairs and/or tables arranged as you want? Is the equipment you need in place and in working order? Is the lighting, ventilation, etc. acceptable? If not, can anything be done about it? Will there be any distractions from a competing workshop next door or on the other side of a partition? Can anything be done about it?

Try to plan your workshop well in advance. Although workshop presentations are not as highly regarded as scholarly papers, for teachers they are as important as a professionally published paper. Handouts should be neatly and legibly reproduced; transparencies should be clear; and pictures and diagrams should be large and visible from the back of the room.

Keep your plans reasonably flexible, and be willing to adjust them whenever necessary. Careful planning should include possible alternatives (for fewer or more participants than expected, for a late-starting, lightly-attended workshop the morning after the Grand Ball, etc.).

Finally, immediately after your workshop record your impressions. Evaluate the workshop: what went well, what didn't and why? You may be invited to give the same workshop again; how could it be improved?

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CONVERSATION: SAYING HELLO AND GOODBYE

By Patricia Sullivan

- A: Hello, Ann. How are you?
B: I'm fine, thank you. And you?
A: Fine, thanks.

- A: Goodbye.
B: Goodbye.

What words are used in American conversations? Does the above dialogue represent American speech? Do dialogues in language textbooks accurately reflect the way language is used? Do we, as language teachers, teach what is actually said in conversation? Students who want to communicate need to know not only what is grammatically correct, but also what is appropriate. In an attempt to find out what expressions are locally used, and to find answers to questions such as the above, I studied greetings and farewells in Honolulu, Hawaii. The study consisted of recording and analyzing greetings and farewells spontaneously uttered, collecting data from native speakers about what they think they say, and comparing the collected data to a sampling of dialogues from ESL textbooks. For the purposes of this study, expressions of greetings and farewells were analyzed as isolated occurrences. They were tabulated according to frequency of use, sex of speaker, and place spoken; and were collected from such varied places as beauty parlors, elevators, office buildings, airports, stores, and television. The responses were collected from people between the ages of approximately 18 and 45.

It will not be surprising to most native speakers to hear that the word "hi" was overwhelmingly the preferred greeting. What is surprising is the almost exclusive use of "hi" by females. Of the 46 greetings heard from females, 31 said "hi." The other 15 greetings were divided into seven different categories. Males, on the other hand, used "hi" in 7 of the 19 collected greetings. The second most common greeting by males was "hello."

The results of farewells heard may be more surprising. Out of the 60 farewells, the word "goodbye" was heard only once, and that was spoken in anger. The most often-heard expressions were "I'll (we'll) see ya," "ba-bye," and "bye." Again there is a difference depending on the sex of the speaker. Males overwhelmingly used the expressions "I'll (we'll) see ya," whereas females most often said "ba-bye" or "bye."

Thirteen native speakers, randomly selected, were asked about their most often used expressions of greetings and farewells. For greetings, the responses matched those heard in spontaneous speech; that is, most speakers said that

they use the word "hi" most often as a greeting. The polled answers for farewells, however, did not match the spontaneously-heard data. The word "ba-bye," which was one of the most frequently heard in spontaneous speech, was never given as a possible farewell by any of the thirteen native speakers.

In the sampling of textbooks, the dialogues did not match the collected data of spontaneous speech. In the seven textbooks sampled, the most commonly used greeting in dialogues was "How are you?," whereas in the collected data, "How are you?" was heard only once in 65 greetings. In the textbooks sampled, "bye" and "ba-bye" were never used in dialogues. The expressions "See you later (tomorrow)" were occasionally used. From this sample, it appears that many textbook dialogues do not represent spontaneously-spoken American greetings or farewells.

One question that we as teachers need to answer is what style of conversation we should teach. From my experience, students in the U.S. rarely have any difficulty in picking up local and often-used expressions, such as "hi," "ba-bye," or "see ya." Need such expressions, then, be written in textbooks? Should they be taught in the classroom? I am not advocating that textbooks drop all formal English dialogues and adopt only informal usage. When using a dialogue, however, a teacher should certainly discuss questions such as: Who says these words? When? In what other ways can the same ideas be expressed?

Does the dialogue given at the beginning of this article accurately represent spontaneous speech? Probably not. This study, of course, may show only speech patterns local to Hawaii. It is up to each teacher to listen discriminatively to local speech, and to determine what words are actually spoken in the local community. As we learned from this study, many ESL textbooks do not accurately represent parts of American conversation. There is a difference between what we say, what we think we say, and what the textbooks say we say. An English language teacher should certainly be aware of these differences.

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BOOK REVIEWS

GETTING INTO IT . . . AN UNFINISHED BOOK

Dave Blot and Phyllis Berman Sher,
Language Innovations, 1978

Reviewed by Jean McConochie
Pace University

The Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning approach holds that trust and self-awareness, even if ar-

rived at through confusion and discomfort, are crucial elements in adult language learning. *Getting Into It* exemplifies that premise in thirteen brief (400-500 word) first-person narratives which recount conflicts accompanying adult learning.

Pierre, for example, can't get started on his writing assignments; Lee Fong finds herself an alien in both American and Chinese culture; Nelson is hurt and angry when his wife returns to school. The trilogy of Berta's, Selina's and Leslie's stories offers the reader the exhilaration of expanding perception as the same incident is recounted from three different points of view.

Some of the discussion questions following each story call for inference ("What relationship can you see between Selina's feeling of aloneness and the way she acts with this group of people?" p. 15); some ask students to discuss their own feelings ("How do you feel about Benita's revealing such a personal story in front of a class?" p. 40). Writing assignments offer a choice between emotionally neutral topics (e.g. pretending to be someone else) and highly charged ones (describing a personal conflict similar to the one in the story).

While the book can easily be used as a supplementary text for intermediate and advanced students in reading and writing classes, it is not primarily intended to teach either of those skills. Its purpose, rather, is "to facilitate self-understanding and ultimately to encourage learning" (Teacher's Manual, p. 2).

Does a teacher need C-L/CLL training in order to use the book effectively? Those who have such training will find that the stories provide a context in which to practice the skill of "understanding". Those who are interested in ESL classroom applications of the C-L/CLL approach will find procedures clearly outlined in the Teacher's Manual. Anyone could profitably use *Getting Into It* to stimulate discussion of problems which confront all language teachers and learners.

The authors' concern and respect for both students and colleagues shine throughout the book. Although written for and about students in the U.S., the problems are universal in nature. For students of English abroad, it also illustrates conflicts which arise when a language learner is surrounded by native speakers.

Those who think of stories that haven't been included are encouraged to write them. The book won't be finished until you have added *your* story... (Copies may be ordered from LINC, 2112 Broadway, New York, NY 10023; student book, \$2.50; Teacher's Manual, \$0.50.)

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JOB OPENINGS

University of New Orleans. Assistant Professor, *English as Second Language*, 2 yr. appointment, August 1979. Ph.D., teaching experience, publications necessary. Teach 12 hrs. fall, 9 spring; summer usually available. Applications acknowledged only if prospect for appointment. Write to Raeburn Miller, Chair, Dept. of English, UNO, lake front, New Orleans, Louisiana 70122. (504) 283-0273).

University of Pennsylvania. The English Program for Foreign Students, an intensive ESL program at the University of Pennsylvania, frequently has openings for part-time (teaching 5-15 hours per week) ESL instructors with an M.A. in TESL/TEFL and experience. Positions are usually available in January, March, May, July, September, and November. Currently, there are no full-time or permanent positions to be filled. Current resumes, including letters of recommendation, should be sent to: Dr. Barry P. Taylor, Director, English Program for Foreign Students, University of Pennsylvania, 3808 Walnut Street/BF, Philadelphia, PA 19104 (215) 243-8681

Nagoya International College. Full-time instructors, beginning April, 1979. MA in TESOL, overseas teaching experience preferred. Send Vita to Nayoga International College, 1-7 Miyanishi-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan 464.

Yarmouk University, (Jordan). Applications are invited for appointments to the post of professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor and Lecturer in the Department of English Language and Literature at Yarmouk University. Candidates for the highest positions should hold a Ph.D. in English or American Literature or in linguistics. Applicants for lectureships should have a post-graduate qualification in E.F.L. send complete dossier to the Dean, faculty of science and arts, Yarmouk University, IRBID Jordan.

University of Pennsylvania. The English Program for Foreign Students, an intensive ESL program at the University of Pennsylvania, is seeking a full-time *Curriculum and Course Coordinator* to assist the director in the overall administration of the program. Applicants should hold an M.A. or Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics, TESL, or a related field, have substantial ESL teaching experience. Applicants should submit resumes to the address below *before March 1, 1979* and indicate whether they can be available for interviewing at the TESOL Convention in Boston. Dr. Barry P. Taylor, Search Committee, EFL for Foreign Students, 21 Bennett Hall/D-1, 34th & Walnut Sts. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104.

School for International Training. Bilingual education specialist. Field experience at elementary level, language teaching methodology required. Will teach curriculum design, materials selection, instructional approaches. Good knowledge of Spanish

desirable. Ph.D. preferred. Apply to Director, MAT Program, School for International Training, Brattleboro, VT 05301.

University of Nebraska at Omaha. ESL instructor. Requirements: Masters degree in ESL + one to two years overseas ESL experience. Duties: Intensive instruction of English as a Second Language. Salary: \$1,000 per month. Send: Resume and complete dossier to: Dr. Samir Ghali, Intensive Language Program, University of Nebraska at Omaha, Omaha NE 68182.

Hamamatsu, Japan. ESL Teachers, write: The English Center, Co., Ltd., 11 Togi-Machi, Hamamatsu City, Shizuoka Prefecture 430, Japan. Telephone: (0534) 56-0109.

University of New Mexico. Teaching Assistantship, English Tutorial Program. Write Dean Brodkey, Director, UNM, Albuquerque, NM 87131.

Syracuse University. Seeking well-qualified ESL teacher at assistant professor rank to teach basic ESL courses. Essential qualifications include a Ph.D. in ESL or Linguistics (with a strong ESL component), experience in teaching ESL at college level and evidence of scholarly activity. Applic., incl. cv and 3 references, should be sent to Jeanette Macero, TESOL Search, Syracuse Univ., English Dept., Syracuse, N.Y. 13210. Deadline for accepting applications: February 21, 1979.

OPPORTUNITY

The Institute of Public Administration invites applicants to posts in TEFL. Candidates must have a masters degree in TESOL or TEFL. Experience in teaching English to adults is preferable. Attractive salaries will be decided according to qualifications and experience. Free fully furnished accommodation is provided. Economy class tickets, forty-five-day paid annual vacation, end of service bonus. For application forms and more information write to:

Director, English Language Program,

Institute of Public Administration,

P.O. Box 205, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

DIRECTOR OF LANGUAGE LEARNING TECHNOLOGY

GEORGETOWN UNIVERSITY

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20057

School of Languages and Linguistics

Applications are invited for the above position. Qualifications include:

- Master's Degree, study and teaching of foreign languages at college level, familiarity with the current sources of software, ability to supervise the production of same, awareness of current trends in language teaching and audio-visual education.
- —Experience (at least five years) in the operation of both broadcast and library modes of language laboratories (both open reel and cassette laboratories), designing and operating new installations, capability to evaluate software both technically and academically.
- Ability to work closely with faculty and students to encourage imaginative use of media and to assist in the development of audio-visual materials, and
- to supervise and train laboratory personnel, both professional and non-professional.
- Minimum starting salary \$15,800 depending upon qualifications.

Applications must be received by 31 March. Position available September 1, 1979. Send resumé and names of three references to: Jose M. Hernandez, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, 37th and O Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20057.

Georgetown University is an equal opportunity, affirmative action employer and encourages applications from women, minorities, and handicapped.



NEWSLETTER

Vol. XIII No. 2

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

April 1979

AMENDMENT TO THE TESOL CONSTITUTION AND TWO RESOLUTIONS PASSED AT BOSTON

Article I of the TESOL Constitution reads as follows:

"The name of this association shall be Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL): A Professional Organization for Those Concerned with the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language and of Standard English as a Second Dialect, hereinafter referred to as TESOL."

It was proposed that the word "International" be inserted in the above article between the words "A" and "Professional" (changing "A" to "An"), so that it reads: "An International Professional Organization. . . ."

As required by the Constitution, the proposed amendment was approved by the Executive Committee at their meeting in September. It was distributed to the members "at least 30 days before the Annual Meeting." To become effective, it had to be ratified by two-thirds of those present at a meeting of the Legislative Assembly. The meeting of

Continued on page 2

Janet Fisher, the new 2nd Vice-President of TESOL and 1980 TESOL Convention Chairperson, is Project Director of CUES—Career Units for ESL Students, ESEA Title IV C, in the Los Angeles Unified School District. An enthusiastic promoter of the 1980 Convention in San Francisco, she would appreciate any input on ideas that TESOL members have concerning program content or other areas of interest for next year's convention.



Spolsky



Crymes



Brown



Fisher



Morley



Briere

TESOL OFFICERS: Bernard Spolsky, President 1978—1979; Ruth Crymes, President 1979—1980; H. Douglas Brown, First Vice President 1979—1980 and President Elect 1980—1981; Janet Fisher, Second Vice President 1979—1980; and Joan Morley and Eugene Briere, new members of the Executive Committee 1979—1982.

(Photographs by Robert Illwitzer.)

FROM THE COMMITTEE ON SOCIO-POLITICAL CONCERNS OF MINORITY GROUPS . . .

Statement on Competency Testing approved by the Executive Committee

Uninformed decisions that affect the well-being of non-native speakers of English are made daily. Currently, state-wide programs of minimal competency testing reflect little awareness of the needs of all students, not to mention the needs of second dialect and second language students.

During its Wednesday, February 28th meeting, the Executive Committee of TESOL instructed the Committee on Sociopolitical Concerns of Minority Groups (CSPCMG) to return on Saturday with a proposed statement which could be disseminated to those concerned with mandating and implementing statewide testing programs. The following statement was approved and should soon be available from the Central Office for distribution.

The CSPCMG urges every member to help in getting this information to appropriate persons. Request copies from the Central Office and deliver them in person to your local school administrators. Send others with a letter to your county, state, and federal representatives. You may also send a mailing list to TESOL and request that the statement

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WANTED: Slides and photos of TESOL activities around the world. **WHY?** A multi-media presentation at the TESOL Summer Meeting and TESOL 1980.

Send to: John Haskell, TESOL Newsletter Editor, Department of Linguistics, Northeastern Illinois University, Chicago, Illinois, 60625. Please indicate the activity depicted and a return address.

AMENDMENT

Continued from page 1

the Legislative Assembly was held on Friday, March 2, at 5:30 p.m., during the Convention in Boston.

By way of explanation, TESOL has in fact always been an international organization. Nearly 25% of the membership resides outside the U.S., and nine out of 40 affiliates are located outside the U.S. Referring to TESOL as an international professional organization will distinguish it from some of its affiliates which are national organizations, such as the one in Mexico, among others.

Amendment passed by the Legislative Assembly (business meeting) of TESOL on March 2, 1979, at the Convention in Boston, Massachusetts.

RESOLUTIONS

I

WHEREAS, the need for qualified and experienced ESL teachers is self-evident for meeting the needs of students whose first language is not English, and

WHEREAS, the established criteria of native-speaker competency in English and expertise in the processes of acquisition of English as a second language by students of diverse educational, cultural and linguistic backgrounds are of first importance in assisting non-native English speakers to achieve their full potential, and

WHEREAS, the right of the learner of English as a second language to the best and most informed language instruction is a natural right, then therefore,

BE IT RESOLVED that the membership of TESOL reaffirms the long established and validated tradition that English as a second language be taught by teachers qualified in the discipline, and condemns the replacement or removal of such teachers by personnel untrained and unqualified in the teaching of English as a second language wherever this practice is occurring, and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the Executive Committee of TESOL undertake the dissemination of this resolution, specifically that TESOL and its affiliates bring this resolution to the attention of the administrators of those educational institutions which are considering replacement of ESL staff by staff from other academic departments.

II

(Proposed by Colloquium #101—ESL Issues in Native American Education. Approved by Advisory Council.)

WHEREAS, Native American participation in TESOL has been active, particularly since the colloquium in Miami, 1977, when eleven tribes and thirty-three delegates were represented, and

WHEREAS, TESOL has demonstrated concern with Native American issues in the *Quarterly Newsletter*, and various papers, workshops, and panels within the international conventions and affiliate meetings, and

WHEREAS, members of Colloquium #101 propose to the Executive Committee that the functions and aims of ESOL in a Native American bilingual education program should support the Native American's goal to maintain/revive his native language, then therefore

BE IT RESOLVED that TESOL continue to actively support Native American participation by:

1) encouraging workshops, colloquia, and panels exploring concerns of Native Americans;

2) highlighting Native American issues in the *Newsletter* and the *Quarterly*;

3) supporting Native Americans' viewpoint that the functions and aims of ESOL in Native American bilingual programs should not conflict with the Native Americans' goal to maintain/revive his native language;

4) encouraging affiliates to actively seek Native American participation at the local level.

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COMPETENCY TESTING

Continued from page 1

be sent to those you list. Remember, however, that the messages you deliver in person, or those to which you add a personal note have a far greater chance of making an impact than those which arrive by mail.

TESOL STATEMENT ON STATE-WIDE PROGRAMS OF COMPETENCY TESTING

More than 60% of the States of the United States have mandated programs of competency testing in the basic skills during the last few years, and several more are about to do so. Because the insights gained from recent movements of competency-based program design and of individualized instruction have made us increasingly aware of the complex nature of this kind of measurement, we would like to bring to your attention the following considerations to bear in mind when planning a testing program.

A. The professional organizations and academic departments specializing in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages provide expertise and should be consulted when decisions are

made concerning competency testing of students whose home language or dialect is other than standard English.

B. Parents of the groups being tested and the students themselves need to be consulted. Questions about relevance and appropriateness of topics, the language to be tested, and the purposes of the tests all need student and parent input.

C. The development of effective measurement instruments is time consuming and costly, but we warn against any cost saving shortcuts that might be considered.

1. Translating existing tests from one language to another does not result in a reliable instrument.

2. Tests developed for or normed on native speakers of a language are not valid or reliable indicators of the language knowledge or skills of a person who is not a native speaker of that language.

3. Tests of proficiency in the modern foreign languages designed for English-speaking students in the U.S. are scaled inappropriately to measure the talents and knowledge of students who are native speakers of those languages.

D. No single instrument can adequately measure students' competency in the basic skills. We urge, therefore, that a variety of opportunities be given to students to demonstrate what they know and that decisions regarding competency never be made on the basis of a single test.

E. Sound objectives and precise goals are essential to any effective testing program. Therefore, the starting point must be to reach agreement on the meaning of "basic" in "basic skills." (For example, specialists in the area of reading know that different reading skills are "basic" to different purposes. What is the purpose of the reading test in your state? To assure success in an academic career? To assure success in a vocation? To document that a student can read directions? a manual? a novel? an application form?)

F. Knowledge of language must be separated from knowledge of subject matter. A test of one should not be used to measure competency in the other.

It is particularly important that, as a student is acquiring a second language or dialect and is concurrently adding to this knowledge in subject matter areas, the testing of the latter be conducted in the *first* language.

Further it is of utmost importance that students who are acquiring knowledge of the language and the content areas simultaneously receive the benefit of considerable instruction in both areas before being tested in either.

Continued on next page

PLANNING LESSONS AROUND COMPETENCIES

By Caroline Dobbs
Harper College

As a result of the Northcutt Adult Performance Level study (APL), the current thrust in competency-based education (CBE) is its application to Adult Basic Education. The extension of competency-based adult education (CBAE) into the ESL classroom is a natural one and, consequently, it would seem timely to look at the terminology used in CBAE.

Functional competency in adults (originally called *literacy* in the APL study) as defined by the Northcutt summary¹ consists of the ability to use skills and knowledge for the purpose of coping with the requirements of adult living. Underlying this is the assumption that more functionally competent adults are more successful in society. Therefore, functional competency is considered to be culture-bound, i.e., geared to the society in which the individual is living. Consequently, CBAE is a 2-dimensional model consisting of a series of skills applied to a series of general knowledge areas. The skills involved are listening/speaking, reading, writing, computation, problem-solving, and interpersonal relations. The general knowledge areas in the APL model are consumer economics, occupational knowledge, health, community resources, and government and law. (The knowledge areas have been expanded, or at least re-defined, by other groups.)

Since CBAE is performance-based, it aims not just at cognitive development but at producing demonstrated mastery of skills and knowledge in areas important to adults with respect to their ability to cope with the societal demands of every-day life. This seems very familiar to the ESL teacher of adults. TESL has long been concerned with teaching such things under the heading of survival skills. Furthermore, many of the concepts being utilized in the CBAE construct are basic tenets of TESL—the knowledge that listening and speaking are separate skills, the need to focus the learners' attention on what it is that they are going to learn in a given lesson, the understanding that learning is not a passive activity, and the use of role-playing, among others. However, the CBAE module does present a new and consistent method of tying these things together.

In support of this view, let us consider the format of a CBAE lesson module as applied to ESL. Each module is set up to include the *purpose*, the

outcomes, *evaluation*, and *instructional activities*, in that order.

The *purpose* of the module is clearly stated at the beginning—e.g., in a module on finding an apartment, the purpose might read *To prepare the learner for apartment-hunting*. A statement of the purpose of the module focuses the learners' attention.

The *outcomes* (goals of the lesson) state, in terms of observable behavior, what the student will be able to do when s/he has mastered the module. One outcome might be as follows: *Reading*: The learner will be able to read the classified ads for apartments. In other words, mastery of the module will be demonstrated by performance in class of certain pre-set activities in each of the skill areas listed in the second paragraph of this article. As Roueche et al.² state it, "Foreknowledge of objectives directs the student to relative subject matter and gives him a structure for organizing diverse information."

The *evaluation* section lists the ways in which the instructor will be able to determine whether or not the learner has achieved mastery of the module within a stated degree. (An example of degree of mastery is that at one time the Illinois driver's test required the applicant to identify signs on the test with 100% accuracy, but allowed him/her to miss a small number of multiple choice questions. Consequently, the stated degree of mastery for knowledge of the signs was 100%, whereas for the information necessary for the multiple choice test it was somewhat less than 100%.) The evaluation includes role-playing and worksheets. The former, in the apartment-hunting module, could require the learner to role-play a dialog, with the instructor acting the part of a landlady/lord, in which the learner asks pertinent questions about the size of the apartment, the rent, the lease, utilities, etc. The worksheets would be concerned with the reading of want ads, choosing an appropriate apartment for the learner's needs, and computing expenses. The evaluation is totally based on the outcomes. Nothing that is not

clearly stated in the outcomes may be included in the evaluation.

A primary consideration for ESL modules in the *instructional activities* should be the linguistic level of the learner. Dialogs and worksheets must be geared to the learners' level, and a note must be made of new vocabulary and structures used in the module so that the instructor may teach these before going further. Material for the worksheets can be taken from local sources—local newspaper classified ads, Yellow Pages from local phone books, local bus schedules, etc. Thus the skill the learner is acquiring can be directly applicable to the learner's functioning in his/her community.

A last factor of CBAE, but one of concern to all teachers, is the fact that the goal is *mastery* of the module being studied. Time is not a factor. A learner has completed the unit when, and only when, s/he has demonstrated this mastery in accordance with the evaluation. In this way, different rates of learning are catered to. The learners' attention is focused on a definable goal and instruction is more easily individualized.

Adult functional competency was defined at the beginning of this article. CBAE has been defined elsewhere as a performance-based process leading to demonstrated mastery of basic life skills necessary for the individual to function proficiently in society. It now seems possible to define competency-based adult education in ESL as a performance-based process leading to demonstrated mastery of identified goals in the basic life skills necessary to function as an adult in an English-speaking society.

¹ Northcutt, et al. *Adult Functional Competency: A Summary*. University of Texas at Austin, Division of Extension. March 1975.

² Roueche, John E., Herrsher, Barton R., and Baker, George A. III. "Time as the Variable, Achievement as the Constant: Competency-based instruction in the community college." "Horizons Issues" Monograph Series. American Association of Community and Junior Colleges. 1976

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Looking happy after a successful convention; Amy Lezberg and Raffael deGruttola, the local co-chairmen, and Carlos Yorio, the program chairman. (Photos by Bob Illwitzer.)

ALLEN STRESSES IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY AND READING IN ESL CLASSROOM

By Jodi Crandall

Center for Applied Linguistics

In an interesting full day's presentation to WATESOL, Virginia French Allen spoke in depth about the related problems of teaching vocabulary and reading in the ESL classroom. As she put it, it's impossible to separate these anyway, since by expanding vocabulary instruction, one is teaching reading, and in teaching reading, one is necessarily teaching vocabulary. Thus, her "Vocabulary Teaching Revisited" and "A Tool Kit for Reading Teachers" were interrelated presentations.

She began her discussion of vocabulary teaching with a historical overview of the status of vocabulary in ESL. She cited the principal cause of the neglect of vocabulary as the audio-lingual method's insistence upon mastering oral language before presenting written language and focusing on syntax and phonology while limiting vocabulary. Although Charles Fries may have been somewhat responsible, Allen believes that Fries has been misunderstood—that he left vocabulary teaching for the end of his book since he thought everyone would teach vocabulary but might neglect the importance of grammar and phonology. Evidence for Fries' fear comes from the linguistically naive assumption that language equals lexicon ("swallow the dictionary and you'll digest the language"). Following the caveats of the audio-lingualists, then, numerous language texts have limited their vocabulary load, while stressing pattern practice and minimal pairs.

However, while ESL teachers were de-emphasizing vocabulary, teachers of the "subject-matter" courses were complaining that their students did not know the words to enable them to understand the course content. Students themselves were clamoring for more word practice. Recent research underscores the importance of lexicon: lexical errors almost lead to more breaks in communication than do syntactic errors.

Allen believes that the major problems in teaching vocabulary arise from emphasis upon verbs (which are irregular and less useful than nouns). In the "In Praise of Nouns" section of her talk, she pointed out that nouns appear with frequency, behave regularly, fill numerous grammatical slots, and function as key words in titles. She cited word frequency lists—such as the 5000 ICA word list or the Thorndike-Lorge List—as a place where teachers can find a "reasonable stock" of nouns. In

addition, she noted the importance of teaching function words.

In the section of her talk devoted to "A Tool Kit for the Reading Teacher," Allen emphasized the need to call students' attention to the surface structure of a sentence to improve reading. She also stressed the need for teaching the context of sentences ("what goes with what" as Stevick describes it). In teaching vocabulary in context, she advocates the use of the cloze procedure.

Allen amplified some effective techniques for teaching reading in her afternoon presentation. The three panelists and various members of the audience also provided interesting suggestions.

(Reprinted from the WATESOL Newsletter)

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DICTIONARY BLOWOUT

The big question was, "Shall we continue to issue English/English dictionaries to our students or shall we take a gargantuan step and hand out English/Arabic dictionaries?"

The English/English case states,

1. "We need to get our students out of the translation rut."
2. "We want the students to use English, not Arabic."
3. "We do not want extra interference from the native language."
4. "Pictures can be used to explain concrete objects."
5. "Students benefit more from explanations in English of abstract words. Let's use the language we are teaching!"
6. "Students will use their English/Arabic dictionaries as crutches, looking up every word they do not know."

The big steppers came back strong:

1. "Our faculty is not bilingual in the students' native language."
2. "A quick word in Arabic is the only way to explain abstract words."
3. "A protracted explanation of an abstract word in English is a good way to turn a reading lesson, a lab session, a structure drill or grammatical explanation into a vocabulary lesson."
4. "From an English/English dictionary explanation the students will proceed to guess at translations and whisper their guess to each other. Do we want to play guessing games?"
5. "Our students seldom voluntarily use the English/English dictionaries we give out every year."
6. "Many of our students do not have the dictionary habit and cannot look up a word in an Arabic/Arabic dictionary with facility. Once they are taught how to use an English/Arabic dictionary they will use them on their own."

7. "The students who buy dictionaries with their own money seldom buy English/English dictionaries."

8. "The students do not use English/Arabic dictionaries as a crutch."

9. "In an English/English dictionary you can end up looking up words to explain words to explain words. . . ."

Let us pretend that you are learning Arabic, a non-Western language, and are at the beginning or intermediate stage. Would you use an Arabic/Arabic dictionary? If the answer is "no," then why should your students be expected to do just the opposite: use an English/English dictionary. Or is your answer "yes?"

COMMITTEE REPORT FROM CHRIS BROADHURST:

Almost all of us in second foreign language teaching approach the dictionary with fear and trembling. We have seen our students rely on the dictionary when they should be guessing from context. At the same time we often have to rely on a dictionary ourselves when a word cannot be deciphered from context. A dictionary hovers between a curse and blessing. It is hoped that the program outlined below will help make the dictionary a blessing rather than a curse. Students hopefully will develop essential dictionary skills one step at a time and not be overloaded with skills they cannot use meaningfully.

The ELC has a new dictionary policy. The students will move from the basic English-Arabic dictionary to a learner's dictionary and finally to a regular university student's dictionary (English/English). Appropriate skills will be developed through each step.

When our students arrive at the ELC they usually do not have much in the way of dictionary skills. Often they lack that most basic of dictionary skills: alphabetization. The use of the English/Arabic dictionary should develop those skills. Certainly it is all the dictionary they will need for their basic program.

As the English proficiency of students increases and their need for more use of a dictionary increases teachers will be free to issue a learner's dictionary. The teachers that do so will have to teach some basic dictionary skills so that the dictionary will not be merely an ornament.

Once the student gets to the UEP and more advanced reading and writing a real university level dictionary becomes useful and thus will be issued. Students in the sophomore courses will probably find use for a bilingual technical dictionary appropriate to their fields of major interest.

(Reprinted from *Team*, No. 26, Dec. 1978)

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A NEW LOOK AT PICTURES

by John and Mary Ann Boyd
Illinois State University

Pictures have traditionally played an important role in the ESL classroom. Nevertheless there has always been a need to improve their effectiveness especially with intermediate and advanced students. Too often the communication generated through pictures at these levels turns out to be mostly teacher talk, or if the students do converse about the picture, the ensuing conversation takes place outside of a framework in which errors can be recognized and eliminated. Students thus tend to remain at their level of proficiency and the benefits of the picture as a teaching tool are seriously diminished.

After much trial and error, we believe that we have devised a very workable technique that combines and encourages communication based on pictures but retains elements of structured control through which language growth can occur. Behind our method lie two philosophical attitudes nurtured through our exposure to the Silent Way. Caleb Gattegno states that the teacher's role is to concentrate on the student while the student concentrates on the language. Secondly, he stresses that teacher silence can lead to student talk. With these philosophical underpinnings, we have developed a technique utilizing pictures to teach, practice and communicate using structures at varying levels of difficulty.

A part of each class session for us involves showing one or more pictures, carefully selected for their size, clarity and content relationship to the structures we wish to emphasize. For example, in a lesson contrasting verb tenses we might choose a picture of a young boy standing by a broken vase being confronted by his mother. If we are working with low level students we may stress only one feature of a picture (i.e., one action using the present continuous tense). With a more advanced group of students we may use the same picture to elicit more complex interchanges.

At whatever level, the teacher's role is that of a facilitator and a guide and is basically non-verbal from the outset of the exercise. The students' first task is to identify vocabulary from the picture. With one student at the blackboard as the recorder and with the teacher pointing to items in the picture, the students name vocabulary words as they are pointed out. The teacher is not here concerned with "teaching" vocabulary. We have discovered that there are very few words that are unknown to all the

students in the class; therefore, the teacher allows the students to interact and elicit from each other the English vocabulary and spellings. After a few minutes, a fairly comprehensive list of words—identified, under appropriate "noun", "verb", "adjective", etc. labels—has been written on the board.

Then the heart of the lesson begins—a lesson that will combine structured control with student freedom of choice in framing meaningful sentences based on the picture. The teacher, without having to speak, points to several words on the board and then asks a student to make a sentence incorporating these words. Since the essential words for a correct English sentence have been given, the student has a framework within which to make any number of statements. However, because verbs are written in their base form only and determiners, connectors and prepositions, etc. are not listed, the student must generate a sentence without all of the props that a more conventional drill exercise employs. It is precisely these small elements of structure that so often prove the stumbling blocks to communication in real-life situations. The same student who can say, "Only one of the three archers is aiming at the target." In a tightly controlled drill may have great difficulty in making such a statement outside of the controlled atmosphere of the classroom. Our technique, unlike the traditional exercise, in supplying the more exotic vocabulary items, frees the student to concentrate on that which has not been provided—i.e., essential elements of structure.

The teacher's guidance, although primarily unspoken, remains throughout the lesson, giving the students a sense of security and providing focus for the exercise. By choosing the words and therefore the complexity of the sentences to be spoken, the teacher can accommodate the varying levels of student language facility that always exist within a class. Even a beginning student within a more advanced class can feel included if a simple sentence pattern is presented to him. For example, the teacher points to the words *man*, *carry*, *suitcase*, and the student produces the sentence, "The man is carry-

ing a suitcase." To another student he points to the words *man*, *carry*, *suitcase*, *hand*, and that student responds with "The man is carrying a suitcase in his left hand." Turning to a third student, the teacher then points to *man*, *shirt*, *blue*, *carry*, *suitcase*, *hand*, and the student replies, "The man in the blue shirt is carrying a suitcase in his left hand." And so on. A question mark can expand the scope significantly and students can question and answer each other with the teacher acting merely as guide and coordinator.

If practice in writing is desired, the teacher can give a dictation from the board, again pointing out to the students a sentence framework in which they must supply the details.

We feel that there are three important byproducts from this method. First, pictures are fun or interesting or both and the prospect of a different picture can make repeated practice on the same structure more enjoyable. Second, since the pictures and their corresponding vocabulary are at the front of the class, the students are looking up—at the board and at each other—there is no opportunity to bury one's nose in a book. At the same time, oral work is being reinforced by the written, often a needed reinforcement for students conditioned from earliest experiences to learn through written stimuli. Finally, the class is working as a group with lively interaction and an awareness of the direction of the lesson. Information and exchanges take place between students instead of between student and teacher. Errors can also be handled through student-teacher interchange if the teacher is content to be silent and chooses to create an environment wherein the students feel that error detection and correction are their responsibilities.

The more we use this technique the more satisfied we are with its possibilities and rewards. We recommend it for use with students in any teaching situation as we have seen it work successfully with adults and with children, in small tutorial settings and with fairly large classes, and for a wide variety of instructional purposes at various levels of complexity. TN 4/79



People You Should Know: Kyle Perkins, with his ever present pipe, the Assoc. Program Chairman for the Boston Convention; Carol LeClair, the Executive Assistant to TESOL; Penny Alatis, Chairman of the 1979-80 TESOL Nominations Committee; and Jackie Schachter, Editor of the *TESOL Quarterly*.

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ENGLISH FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

By James N. Davis
Saudi Arabia

Much has recently been written on various Community Language Learning techniques and their attempt to engage all aspects of the learner's personality. This has been referred to as the involvement of the "whole person" or the taking into account of the "affective domain" in teaching and learning. Another trend in our profession has been to look at teaching from the point of view of the specific purposes students might have for acquisition of the target language. In many English for Science and Technology programs, performance objectives and sequencing are already conceived of before students (and often, instructors) even arrive. In such a "cognitively"-oriented area as technology, the CLL keystone of a "contractual bind that makes both the knower [teacher] and the learners of equal value . . . to one another" (Curran, 1972) would seem to be out of place. Yet if we are to be eclectic, we will see how every approach can reinforce every other approach. In the Ohio University program in Saudi Arabia, a CLL exercise has been used to stimulate student involvement and lower anxiety over the linguistic and scientific sides of the learning process. This article attempts to describe CLL techniques in one class.

Instructors in the Ohio program are asked to move students to a level of proficiency at which they can understand and converse in English about electronics with American technicians and can read rather simple electronics texts. The group we are discussing has been "recycled" primarily because of problems with English structure. As one would imagine, the class members have been exposed to a wide variety of teaching styles and methods after approximately a year and a half of study. The group has had a rather low energy level due in part to having been left behind by peers who were more successful in language study. Grammar is being reviewed. Furthermore, a greater accent is being placed on scientific reading. Most class members had studied little English or science before the beginning of the course.

Two CLL sessions a week during which students record themselves without correction have been attempted with this group. The sessions last from about fifteen to a maximum of twenty minutes. The first part of the session is seven to ten minutes long. In it, technical concepts are discussed. Perhaps the group has just read an article on electro-

magnets. The instructor asks them words they remember. These may be written. The class then talks about the subject (on tape) normally in the form of questions and answers. Those grammatical forms commonly associated with scientific English (e.g., the passive, the non-progressive tenses, etc.) seem to occur naturally in scientifically-oriented conversations.

The class might also be given an object they have never seen (e.g., a small thermocouple)—but perhaps have read a description of rather recently. They are not told what the object is. They ask and answer questions about it.

A second segment of the conversation usually deals with some important news event. A sentence or two similar to a headline are written (e.g., King Khaled is in a clinic in Cleveland, Ohio. He has had a successful heart operation.) Everyone has heard and probably read about these happenings in his language. Transferring such information into the target language is obviously crucial to making English "real."

The final portion is devoted to "free conversation." In such a structured program, this time is particularly appreciated. No topic is suggested by the instructor. Even free, non-scientific conversation does not seem to be ungermane to the requirements of scientific English students, according to some authorities. Nolasco (1978) has seen the need in EST preparation for "clear and competent use of everyday English."

The tape is played back, and it is stopped each time there is a mistake. The instructor is silent while students make corrections. The class knows it has made a valid correction when the tape is continued. Occasionally, the instructor will ask, "What kinds of mistakes are you making?" In early sessions, responses like "Grammar" and "Pronunciation" were given. As students were encouraged to become more specific, they began to analyze mistakes more carefully. Recently, they have made such comments as: "We have problems with helping words" and "I can't say 'repel.'" (re[b]el)

After several problem areas are noted, students normally vote on which grammar point they would like to practice for the rest of the week. The instructor takes care to spend class time on the problem area, especially during the next few days. It is important that the class feel a degree of control over what is being treated during their time. Also, group consciousness of a structure or pronunciation problem tends to lead to self- and group-correction of it in other contexts.

A second taping session when the

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COMPUTERS AND TESOL: THREE ALTERNATIVES

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At the 1978 conventions of both TESOL and NAFSA, there was substantial interest in the use of computers to supplement ESL instruction. As the profession looks forward it may be useful to consider patterns which emerged from the 1978 discussions. It seems clear that we are beginning to look hard at computers as learning tools, and that the core of TESOL people with knowledge of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) is expanding.

Three general approaches to computers and TESOL were discussed at one or both of the 1978 meetings: the acquisition of lessons to use with computers already in operation; the use of small "one person" computers; and the use of computer packages, TICIT and PLATO. To facilitate discussion of these, it is useful to note that a distinction is generally made between computer hardware (the machinery), and computer software (the lessons and instructions to the machinery). The hardware is further divided into (among other things) the computer itself and one or more computer terminals. Terminals are often similar to television sets with typewriter keyboards in front of them. The usual procedure is for the student to communicate with the computer by using the keyboard, and then to be shown displays on the screen. It is possible to buy computer hardware without accompanying software, and this is often done. With the "one person" computers, in fact, ESL lessons are not now available. Computer hardware can be very costly, and it is logical that a TESOL program which already has access to a computer might consider acquiring a series of ESL lessons to use with it.

Many universities now use computers to do a variety of jobs, such as processing student records, keeping library files, or assisting with faculty research. TESOL programs affiliated with these universities are seemingly at an advantage in providing their students with computer-assisted instruction. Unfortunately, buying ready-made lessons is not easy. Lessons (and other software) written on one computer system generally will not work on another system. The alternative is to author lessons within the TESOL program itself. This requires at least one person with computer programming expertise, and such a person may be expensive. Two points are important here, however. First, such

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a person may already be available, perhaps working for another department or program, and it may be possible to get his or her services on a part-time basis. Second, if the computer used is not set up with a simple programming procedure, such a person would be required anyway, even if lessons already existed.

This is true for the "one person" computers as well. These may prove cheaper than the large central systems, and some computer specialists see their cost declining in the near future. They may also allow for more individualization of instruction, since students normally share a common bank of lessons when a central computer is used. This remains to be seen, however. At present, the people available to you are probably the chief determiners of what is possible.

At the present time, TICCIT and PLATO are the only systems with extensive ESL lessons. Both use a central computer linked to student terminals, but the TICCIT computer is nearby, for instance on the same campus, while PLATO terminals can connect to distant computers via telephone lines. This makes it possible for a program in Arizona to use a computer in the midwest, for instance, but the cost of the telephone line connections can be great. An obvious advantage is that students

can access a much larger computer.

Besides having different hardware hookups, there are other differences: TICCIT has color; PLATO has a "touch panel" so that students can communicate with the computer by touching the screen; and, perhaps most important, TICCIT is easier to write lessons for and generally easier for staff to work with. It is a little difficult to think of PLATO and TICCIT in competition with each other, given their differences. They seem to function differently, and to meet different needs. The advantages and disadvantages of the two systems are best investigated by direct contact with TICCIT and PLATO representatives.

In discussions of ESL and computers, there seems to be a pattern in which people say, "We already have ____, and we want to get ____." What people already have is an available computer person, access to a computer, or some extra money in their budgets (believe it or not). All of these can be good starts, but the only way to really understand what your options are is to get specific estimates of costs and possibilities from the companies involved. Ideally, of course, this should happen before a university buys a computer "to keep student records." Another computer might have kept the records and given better options with lessons as well.

The three categories of computer-assisted instruction suggested here are offered as a framework for further inquiry and discussion. They give an indication of how we, as a discipline, are looking at computers now: the directions that seem interesting to people involved in ongoing TESL programs. Some of the discussion in 1978 was by people who read papers, but much of it was by people who were asking questions. We need more from both sides.

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group is closer to mastering the problem they brought up is similar in time arrangement to the first. A question using the structure worked on in class may be the topic for one part of the conversation. This session may serve as a kind of self-test of how far the group still needs to move.

In the Ohio University program, this Community Language Learning exercise has been used with several classes. My experiences have been different in each situation. This technique has certainly worked well with a group that has had previous English study.

Curran, Charles A. 1972. *Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education*. New York and London: Grune and Stratton.

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Carlos Yorio, the Second Vice President, meeting with the SIC chairmen and associate chairpersons to discuss problems



and future growth.



(Photos by Bob Illwitzer.)

IT WORKS

By Dariene Larson
New York University

"Reading Up To Expectations"

Experts tell us that what a reader brings to a page—his or her experience, knowledge, opinions, and language proficiency—is every bit as important as what the page brings to the reader. We "size up" a piece of writing. We approach it with an attitude of, "I'll bet I know what this is about." In short, we set expectations. Then we read to confirm those expectations.

You and I, language teachers, are challenged with the task of getting students to tackle things they don't know, to realize that they probably know more than they think they do, and to persuade them to see if the piece of writing is anything like what they supposed. This is no easy step in a second language because it is no easy step in a first language. Have a native speaker look at "read" and pronounce it. Nobody is sure if it is read or read. But when students approach a piece of writing in a second language, they want to be absolutely certain of every letter as they meet it. This is impossible, and we have to give them the confidence to make a guess at something, go right on to the next part, and if things don't "hang together", to come back later.

The device which I have been working with is the format of the cloze test. This is the technique in which a piece of writing is rewritten with every fifth word deleted. Then, by asking students to reconstruct the original, and scoring their success in doing so, researchers have found it a handy method for placement tests, for grouping of students, for determining readability of material, and for measuring language proficiency. I am not concerned with these objectives at this time. I am interested in this format because it is so easy to prepare, and because on looking at it, there clearly are words that the students don't know—because they aren't there. Thus, one takes a matter-of-fact kind of attitude that says, "Of course you don't know every word on the page. You never do. But you can figure out what they mean, anyway."

I don't want this exercise to be a test. Thus, I encourage students to work in pairs or in groups of three and to help each other. (By the way, when you divide into partners for a cooperative task like this one, give each set of partners only one piece of paper. Time after time, no matter what you say in your directions, if you divide into partners and give each partner a sheet to

work on, you'll get two people seated together but working independently. Two people and one sheet result in more cooperative efforts.) Tell them to make guesses and go on to the next word. If they can think of two or three possibilities, put them all down and come back later to decide.

One good thing about the random deletion of every fifth word in the cloze format is that some blanks will be vocabulary items and others will be function words of the language. Expectations for one will be set by the content, the story, the situation. Expectations for the other will be set by grammatical information. And so it is in the act of reading. Not only do we have expectations about the ideas expressed and the thesis of the article, but we make hypotheses about the letters, words, and phrases as well. Students draw on all of their knowledge in order to complete this task, just as they do when reading.

One last word about the cloze format. As I am putting an exercise together and come to a fifth word that is a person's name, the first time that person is mentioned I usually leave the name and take out the sixth word and go on from there. There are certain content words which no one can guess. Whether the lady's name is Gertrude or Agnes or Blanche is not terribly important and it doesn't do much good to have students spend a lot of time on what her name might be.

Let us suppose that your students have been divided into partners and have been given a single sheet with a cloze passage on it, and enough time has passed that they have gotten started and are doing the task cooperatively. Now give the other partner a sheet so that each student has a copy, making it easier for them to work and making certain each student will have a copy for his or her notebook. It will take a few minutes now for them to go back over what they have done in order to get both partners' sheets up-to-date. They often notice things that they missed the first time through. After a few more minutes have the partner on the left stand up, and move to the next couple, or, in other words, change partners. When the new partners get together, there will be more reason to discuss and review what each one has and to see where they agree and disagree. Change partners several times according to the length and difficulty of the passage.

With the realization that it is important for readers to bring information to the written page, it seems to me that we should give second language students reading practice on selections about topics they know and that interest them. I suggest a paragraph or two

about the history of the town in which you teach. High school students are often anxious to get a driver's license. A cloze passage about the procedure for getting a license, or a description of the location of the testing office would be good. Passages about the countries included in the social studies syllabus, about the plants and animals in the biology course, about city and state government or political parties at the time of elections ought to be safe bets that they would not be strange and remote from the students' experience.

The Bobst Library is a place with which my NYU students need to become acquainted. I have prepared Form A and Form B of a passage which includes the library hours, information about the smoking areas of the library, rules about eating and drinking there, and the location of drinking fountains and pencil sharpeners. A follow-up passage explains the computerized circulation system of the library—zebra labels and all. Students need to become acquainted with cafeteria regulations, campus organizations, transportation systems and the like. All students who have found their way to a classroom know something about all of these phases of students and city life. Thus, they'll be bringing personal knowledge to the printed page, but they'll be interested in learning more.

One form is enough. You don't have to have two. But how will students find out what the original said? There are several ways. One, if the passage is easy enough, the students should be able to construct the original, or a close version of it, after they have changed partners a few times. Although I give credit for any synonyms or variations that mean about the same thing, students are often curious to know exactly what the passage said before they worked on it.

Option 1. After changing partners several times, give a copy of the passage as it was before you put it into cloze.

Option 2. Record the passage on tape. After students have changed partners several times and have figured out just about all they can, turn on the tape recorder and let them listen and read to themselves. Let the students operate the recorder, stopping it where they wish, rewinding and playing again the parts that they didn't catch. When you record, try to keep conversational speed and intonation. Don't use your announcer voice. Use your conversational voice and pretend you are saying these passages to a friend of yours. With all of the reductions and contractions of normal speech, students have trouble catching a lot of words *even after they have worked with the passage*. When

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THE "DRAMA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING" WORKSHOP

By Madeline Brand

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Philosopher and behavioral scientist Jean Houston, Director of the Foundation of Mind Research, stated in an interview with the *Saturday Review* in September, 1977 that the arts ought to be used in reading, mathematics and language programs. "Verbal-linear-analytical intelligence is a small part of the intelligence spectrum" she said, "A student needs whole-body thinking to evoke more of the mind-body system."

It was with this concept in mind that the representatives of five countries, New Zealand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and the United States met in Honolulu on April 19, 1978 to begin a two-month workshop sponsored by the Culture Learning Institute at the East-West Center on the campus of the University of Hawaii. The coordinator was Richard Via, whose name is synonymous with the title of the workshop.

Teachers today realize that drama can be a very effective technique in teaching oral English but many are hesitant about using the medium for a number of reasons. They lack an understanding of what is meant by drama in language teaching, confusing it with theatre; they say their classes are too large to use drama effectively; they feel they lack the necessary training to use drama, and that drama is too time-consuming. The East-West Center felt the time had come to bring together a group of educators experienced and successful in the uses of dramatic techniques in order to share their methods and to explore the ways which might demonstrate to teachers that drama in language teaching can be easily mastered, readily adapted to large classes and need not be time-consuming. Indeed, if properly used, drama can be a very facilitating technique for teaching oral English.

To stimulate the flow of ideas each participant was asked to lead the workshop for one week. Lectures, demonstrations, discussions, audio and video tapes, films and personal participation in dramatic situations were all used at some time during the workshop. Thus we met as teachers and as students exchanging ideas in a manner that generated many exciting insights into the dramatic process as it relates to language learning. Every conceivable dramatic form was explored: scripted drama, improvisations, interviews, role-playing, story games, talk-and-listen dialogues, creative and created drama, choral presentations, quiz games, gestures, movement and body language.

Indeed it was heralded by the more common situational teaching method in which students are asked to act out everyday situations using memorized scripted materials.

Drama in language learning is not a new idea. What is new is the Via concept that drama in language learning is concerned with experiencing and with communication between the participants. This is markedly different from theatre, which is largely concerned with communication between actors and an audience. In 1904 Otto Jespersen wrote that we ought to learn a language through "sensible communication." Drama is concerned with human relationships, its dialogue is meaningful and natural; and more than any other classroom method (short of actual conversation) approaches "sensible communication."

Dramatic techniques do not require scenery or props, nor do they require memorizing lines. Rather, they require projecting one's self into an imagined role. The drama trains language learners to express themselves by "using" themselves.

The question concerning the proper function of drama in language teaching was explored. The group agreed that drama is establishing itself as a useful supplement to the traditional methods. Participants also felt that under the proper circumstances it would be feasible to use drama exclusively in intermediate and advanced courses, but conceded that such a course might have difficulty passing the curriculum committee in many colleges.

The argument by teachers that they have no training in drama points to the need for teachers to understand what is meant by Via drama and to understand their own pedagogical strengths. Three attributes necessary for a teacher using a drama method were pinpointed: the ability to (a) develop a feeling of trust, (b) to be demanding yet sensitive to the students' limitations in the second language and (c) to evaluate the results of the dramatic technique in terms of language learning. Most teachers already possess these attributes.

Another important outcome of the workshop was of a cultural nature. We learned that similarities among the participants of our diversified group were significantly more outstanding than the differences. Like many others, most of us had always accepted the notion that the culture and the language of a people have a profound affect on their basic thought processes and on the structure of their personalities. Realizing, however, that anthropologists continue to debate this issue and that the argument remains academic, our personal experience in the workshop persuaded us that cultural and linguistic backgrounds did

not reach down into our thought processes and personality structures. As we described our countries and our people to each other and as we worked and played together, we realized there is no more variation in our basic thinking and personalities than might be found among our own colleagues back home, sometimes less. Nor did a 'model' personality or cognitive 'profile' turn up in our cross-cultural group. We recognized, of course, that the *content* of our culture and the *expression* of our personalities had been affected by our individual culture and language but that while these aspects were interesting, they were trivial and certainly less significant than the structure of thought and personality per se. Indeed there does appear to exist an innate human capacity for mutual understanding among the peoples of the world.

A knowledge of cultural differences can, however, do much to promote better understanding and empathy, and one of the most effective ways to do this is through drama. Once during the workshop the gentleman from Malaysia and I decided to improvise a dramatic skit wherein we would attempt to reverse our cultural identities. I would be a Malaysian girl and he a young American Airforce officer stationed in Penang who comes to visit me in my parents' home. After presenting the improvisation, we both agreed that the experience cultivated our perception and increased our awareness of each other's culture to a highly conscious level. While avoiding the stereotypes and overgeneralizations it made us aware of the different patterning, not only in the culture, but in communication as well. Cultural interaction makes communication more than a mere exchange of information. By consciously incorporating cultural and communication signals into our linguistic materials, we can be confident we are teaching not only oral English but communication.

Finally it was agreed that to help language teachers appreciate the ease with which drama can be used in teaching and to help them get started, a textbook is needed. The contents of the book should be adaptable to different ethnic groups and should enable teachers to use drama while still meeting the requirement of preparing students to pass semester examinations. A number of the participants are presently engaged in the development of this project.

Until recently any technique that dared to supersede linguistic theory was considered unprincipled and suspect. Fortunately teachers today are beginning to select materials which elicit natural oral communication with native speaker-like intuition.

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A SURVEY OF NEGATION IN BEGINNING EFL BOOKS ON BEING A NEGATIVE ESL TEACHER

By James Herbolich
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By Gary Bevington
Northeastern Illinois University

Negation is an integral part of English, whether negation of tenses or negation through individual semantic items (i.e. any, yet, rarely, etc.). To learn English, therefore, the beginning EFL student must learn negation and this must be presented somewhere in the EFL textbook the teacher has chosen for the students. But, to what extent do beginning EFL textbooks include items of negation and in what order are they presented?

Nine beginning EFL textbooks were used in the survey: 1. *Look, Listen and Learn!*; 2. *Success with English*; 3. *New Horizons in English*; 4. *Let's Learn English*; 5. *Learning English*; 6. *English in Action*; 7. *First Things First*; 8. *See, Hear and Speak*; 9. *English for Today*. For the most part, the textbooks varied greatly in their approaches to and methods of EFL teaching. Some stressed the direct method, some the audiovisual method; some a contrastive approach, some a situational approach. They also varied in the group for which they were intended. One, *Learning English*, was specifically written for speakers of Arabic; another, *Look, Listen and Learn!*, for children aged eight or nine; and another, *See, Hear and Speak*, for adult immigrants to Australia. Generally, the textbooks were intended to be used in a year-long introductory course in English. Four of the textbooks were published in the United States, four in England, and one in Cairo, Egypt. One sees, therefore, a wide initial variation between these beginning EFL textbooks, but do they show such a variation regarding English negation?

Method of the Survey

I chose 22 items of English negation to be included in the survey. (See below.)

To survey the negation items in the textbooks, I used the student's textbook, the teacher's handbook and the glossary in either of the two. Going through each chapter I was able to note when the negation item was introduced and in what context.

Results of the Survey

No textbook contained all 22 items of negation. *First Things First* contained 21 items (rarely/seldom was not included), while *See, Hear and Speak* contained 5 negation items. All the other textbooks fell within this range with the average being 9 negation items per textbook.

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Negation in English is a topic of enormous importance to the ESL teacher and learner. We can support this statement first by pointing to its frequency of usage both in spoken and written forms of the language. Furthermore, we can observe that negation is a probably linguistic universal or nearly so, which is to say that every language has a system of positive and negative statements and a set of rules for relating them. While negation may be a universal of language, it is clear that the system of positive and negative statements and the set of rules relating them are not and the range of variation in negation among natural languages is quite broad. The significance of these observations for the ESL teacher is that negation is a subject that should be dealt with early on in ESL instruction and that the ESL learner comes to the task of learning English with an implicit system of knowledge and beliefs about negation from his native language that must be dealt with directly or indirectly by the ESL teacher.

The question arises as to what knowledge and skills the ESL teacher should acquire to make him successful in dealing with English negation. Minimally, he must have a basic grasp of the way negation works in English. It will also be useful for him to have some knowledge of common types of negation systems in other languages; that is, it may be useful to be aware of what the student might bring with him from his native language, both as a way of guessing where there may be areas of difficulty and as a diagnostic tool after problems have arisen. Finally, the teacher should have a strategy for presenting the material to the student.

In this brief report it is, of course, impossible to come to serious grips with even one of the three issues just mentioned. Any one of them is clearly worthy of a monograph, but unfortunately suitable treatments for the ESL teacher are not available. Instead, we must content ourselves here with a few largely anecdotal illustrations of the problems involved and a few references to the woefully inadequate literature which may be consulted.

Turning first to the question of English negation, we can refer the reader to the article in this area by Edward Klima "Negation in English" (in J. Fodor & J. Katz *The Structure of Language* (Prentice-Hall, 1964) pp. 246-323). Unfortunately, it is difficult reading even for a person with considerable

background in theoretical linguistics and all but inaccessible to anyone else. An excellent brief and very readable summary of Klima's analysis is presented at the beginning of a theoretical article on negation by R. Jackendoff "An Interpretative Theory of Negation" in *Foundations of Language* 5(1969)218-241. A word of warning is necessary, however, don't go beyond the first section (pp. 218-222) unless you're really into negation and theoretical linguistics. A presentation of negation available to those with minimal linguistic training is Quirk *et al*, *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, pp. 374-385.

Klima's fundamental insight is that negation was basically something that happens to sentences. I think that this observation has a great deal of significance for the ESL teacher. The most effective way of dealing with negation is to talk about it as something that happens to *sentences* and not, say, *verbs* as one might assume. Consider sentence (1):

(1) John had some money once.

An ESL student taught that negation is something you do to verbs might reasonably come up with (2).

(2) John didn't have some money once.

For the native speaker of English, at least two negative versions of this sentence are immediately apparent.

(3) John never had any money.

(4) John didn't ever have any money.

Other possibilities exist:

(5) John didn't have any money ever.

(6) John had no money ever.

What can we reasonably expect from an ESL learner? I think that we would all agree that for his active use of the language, we would hope for sufficient mastery of the language to avoid (2) and be able to produce one of the versions (3) through (6), probably (3) as our first choice. Even this will be no mean accomplishment for learner and teacher.

It is useful for the teacher to have some idea of what the ESL student may bring to task of mastering English negation from his native language. In other words, some general information on the typology of negation in human language is an important topic. But it is almost shocking how little is available to the reader on this important topic. In fact, the only significant study I have been able to find goes back to Otto Jespersen's article "Negation in English and Other Languages" written in 1917 and reprinted in *Selected Writings of Otto Jespersen*.

The most important thing that ESL teacher should keep in mind is that as systems of negation go in natural lan-

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Table 1. The two dimensions of the yes-no question-answering system in 16th century English, Modern English, and Japanese *

	Agreement to the statement of a question	Disagreement to the statement of a question	
	16th century English		Modern English
Positive: no negation in the highest clause in an answer	(Are you going?) Yes.	(Aren't you going?) Yes.	Are you going? Yes, I am going. Aren't you going?
Negative: negation in the highest clause in an answer	(Aren't you going?) No.	(Are you going?) Nay.	Aren't you going? No, I am not going. Are you going?
	Japanese		
	Are you going? Yes, I am going.	Aren't you going? No, I am going.	
	Aren't you going? Yes, I am not going.	Are you going? No, I am not going.	

* From M. Akiyama. "Negative Questions in Young Children," Child Language Acquisition Forum, Stanford, 1976. TN 4/79

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guages English is almost "weird". A couple of simple examples will illustrate this. First, multiple negation, e.g. "Nobody didn't never say nothing nowhere to nobody." is really the most common and reasonable way for a language to carry out sentence negation. That it is reasonable I think is amply illustrated by the fact that the deviant example given above is perfectly comprehensible to English speakers and we all understand it in exactly the same way, as simple sentence negation not as an accretion of negative operators operating on one another as one might expect given the old school-grammar saw about two negatives making a positive. This latter interpretation would, absurdly, make the above sentence equivalent to a positive statement since it contains an even number of negative operators (six) which would in effect wipe each other out. This of course then represents a common kind of interference problem in negation confronting the ESL teacher. To compound the problem is the fact that there are dialects of English with multiple negation and the ESL learner is quite likely to come in contact with speakers of these dialects which will reinforce his use of such a system in English. The heart of the problem here is the value that English-speaking bourgeois society places on the use of multiple negation. Somehow this must be explained in a human and non-condescending way to ESL students, even though they come from a milieu where this is the norm for spoken English.

Another example is what might be called after a popular song of the 1940's the "Yes-we-have-no bananas" syndrome. Consider the following sentences:

- (7) John has five dollars.
(8) John doesn't have five dollars.

The statements are contradictory; one or the other is true but not both. Consider now the yes/no question forms of (7) and (8):

- (9) Does John have five dollars?
(10) Doesn't John have five dollars?

Both (9) and (10) have two appropriate answers: affirmative (yes) and negative (no). Answering (9) affirmatively asserts the truth of (7) and the falsity of (8); answering it negatively asserts the truth of (8) and the falsity of (7). Consider the answers to (10). It would be "reasonable" to assume that things would be reversed, i.e. an affirmative answer would assert the truth of (8) and the falsity of (7). While this is "reasonable", for English it is simply not accurate; affirmative and negative answers to (9) and (10) make exactly the same assertions of truth and falsity with regard to (7) and (8). That this "unreasonable" state of affairs in English is not the case in other languages is mirrored in the obvious non-native reply in the old song. When these facts about English are pointed out to even fairly advanced ESL students, one very often gets reactions ranging from surprise to bewilderment to moral outrage.

The general point we are trying to make about interference in teaching negation is that it does play a significant role. But the ESL teacher can anticipate a number of problems based on general observations about cross-linguistic negative typology without the necessity of understanding the details of the mechanics of negation in the individual native languages of one's ESL students.

To conclude this discussion we wish to make a few observations about pedagogical strategy in teaching negation. First, it should be emphasized that the solution is not "a lesson" or "a unit" or "a chapter" on negation. The prob-

lem is simply too complex for that. Instead, a systematic "layering-on" approach must be taken. By this we mean that the topic of negation must be divided in manageable-sized "packages" which are then prioritized and integrated into other material the student is being taught. The core elements of negation are to be presented very early to the student and added on to at regular intervals throughout the student's training even to very advanced levels. The most basic or "core" elements center around the mechanics of verbal negation. At a slightly more advanced level one would be concerned with such things as affectives (*some/any*, etc.), and basic variations and equivalencies among negated sentences. At an advanced level topics relating to interclausal negation such as raising (cf. *I think he hasn't left. = I don't think he has left. BUT I know that he hasn't left. ≠ I don't know that he has left.*) and multiple negation (which *does* exist in standard English, e.g. *I didn't say nobody won.*) It is also important to stress the efficacy of pattern drills, particularly oral ones, in developing proficiency with negation in ESL students. While an understanding of the mechanisms of negation may be helpful, particularly for adult ESL learners, the only thing that really counts in the ability to produce correct negatives and correctly understand those produced by native speakers. In most situations, ESL learners do not enjoy the luxury of being able to intellectualize about this. Instead, they must perform rapidly, and this kind of performance is most easily achieved by oral pattern drills.

It should be clear that the foregoing remarks have only scratched the surface of the problem of negation in ESL. Hopefully, others may see the virtue of dealing with some of the topics touched on here in the detail which they deserve.

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SURVEY OF NEGATION

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Only two of the textbooks, *English in Action* and *Learning English*, had specific set sections in each unit to present negation. The other textbooks usually presented the negation item along with the affirmative.

Most of the tenses are negated in the unit where the tense is introduced. The exception to this is the simple present, which is introduced a unit before its negation.

Two of the negation items, ever/never and some/any, showed the most variation in introduction according to the syntactic structures with which they are introduced. Ever/never was sometimes introduced using the present tense, sometimes with the copula "to be", and sometimes with the present perfect tense. Any/some was often introduced with there is/there are, but was also introduced with the simple present, as in *Learning English*, and once with the past tense in *English in Action*.

In order to arrive at a general ranking of when the 22 negation items are introduced in EFL textbooks, I totaled how many books included each item of negation. I then added the rankings for each item as it occurred in each textbook and divided this total by the number of textbooks that contained the negation item.

The results of this process gives an overall ranking to each of the 22 negation items and, in general, the 22 items of negation are introduced in the following order in beginning EFL textbooks:

1. no
2. not
3. isn't/aren't
4. negation of present progressive
5. some/any
6. negation of simple present
7. never/ever
8. negation of simple past
9. negation of immediate future
10. negative requests (don't)
11. negation of was/were
12. no/none/no one
13. tag questions
14. negation of simple future
15. compounds of some/any/no
16. negative questions
17. negation of past continuous
18. rarely/seldom
19. either/neither
20. negation of present perfect
21. yet/still
22. until

Admittedly, an EFL teacher can not choose a textbook solely on the sequencing of negation items, but this survey, in conjunction with other comparative surveys, will help the EFL teacher when faced with the dilemma of deciding on a beginning EFL textbook.

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Table 2. Analysis of negative questions, answers to them, and the underlying intention in speakers of different languages*

Language of Speaker	Negative question	Answer	Underlying Intention
English speaker	Aren't you going? (negative)	Yes, (positive)	I am going. (positive)
	Aren't you going? (negative)	No, (negative)	I am not going. (negative)
Japanese speaker	Aren't you going? (negative)	No, (negative)	I am going. (positive)
	Aren't you going? (negative)	Yes, (positive)	I am not going. (negative)
English-Japanese bilingual speaker	Aren't you going? (negative)	Yes, (positive)	I am going. (positive)
	Aren't you going? (negative)	No, (negative)	I am not going. (negative)

* From M. Akiyama. "Negative Questions in Young Children," Child Language Acquisition Forum, Stanford, 1976.

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EDITOR'S NOTES

Dear Editor:

Why is the Newsletter so slow?

I received my February copy on Friday, March 9 too late to benefit from info on the convention. Aside from the timing, the newsletter is Great! full of goodies each time. I like the new paper too—seems like I'm getting more.

Marilyn Hooger
Tacoma, WA

With Volume XIII, the *TESOL Newsletter* will return to a six issue format; Feb, Apr, June, Aug, Oct, and Dec. Increasing amounts of advertising, articles of interest, and needs of the SIGs to disseminate news and information to the entire TESOL membership have already increased the number of pages in each issue. If you wish to contribute in any way to the content of the TN, please note that the deadline for material is the 1st of the month prior to its publication date (ie. Jan 1, Mar 1, May 1, July 1, Sept 1, and Nov 1). It takes approximately one month to get copy ready for printing (type setting, editing, lay-out, proofing, etc.). Despite what might seem to be late issues, we have been able to put the TN into the mails (from Bloomington, Illinois) on or near the first of the month of publication. (Note: Copies mailed to me take 2 days to my home address and 10-15 to my school address—in the same city.) Generally, the problem lies with local post offices and their priorities.

Below, I have provided an index to the issues of the TN since it began publishing in 1967. Issues marked with 2 No.s were attempts to provide consistent numbering for each volume. Note that Vol. VI, No's

3-6 should have been Vol. VII, Nos. 1-4. In 1976 we began printing 5 Nos. a year, to cut mailing costs. Since then we have reduced the costs by changing the weight of the paper and acquiring a greater amount of advertising. We hope that 6 no's of each volume will expand your pleasure in receiving the TN. If you have any comments or suggestions we would be glad to receive them.

Please note that in Vol. X, No. 1, 1976 there was an "Index to Articles Printed in the First Ten Volumes".

Index to TESOL Newsletters

- Volume I: No. 1, Apr 1976
 Volume II: No. 1-2, Jan-Mar 1968
 No. 3 May; No. 4 Nov.
 Volume III: No. 1, Feb 1970
 Volume IV: No. 1, Feb 1970
 No. 2-3 Sept-Dec 1970
 Volume V: No. 1 Feb 1971; No. 2 June 1971
 No. 3-4 Sept-Dec 1971
 Volume VI: No. 1 May 1972; No. 2 Nov 1972
 No. 3 Apr 1973; No. 4 July 1973
 No. 5 Sept 1973; No. 6 Nov 1973
 Volume VIII: No. 1-2 Jan-Mar 1974
 No. 3 May 1974; No. 4 July 1974
 No. 5-6 Sept-Nov 1974
 Volume IX: No. 1 Jan 1975; No. 2 Mar 1975
 No. 3 May 1975; No. 4 July 1975
 No. 5 Oct 1975; No. 6 Dec 1975
 Volume X: No. 1 Feb 1976; No. 2 Apr 1976
 No. 3 June 1976; No. 4 Sept. 1976
 No. 5 Nov-Dec 1976
 Volume XI: No. 1, Jan-Feb 1977
 No. 2 Apr 1977; Nov 3 June 1977
 No. 4 Sept. 1977; No. 5 Nov 1977
 Volume XII: No. 1 Feb 1978; No. 2 Apr 1978
 No. 3 June 1978; No. 4 Sept. 1978
 No. 5 Nov 1978
 Volume XIII: Feb, Apr, June, Aug, Oct, Dec 1979

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JOURNALS AND NEWSLETTERS

Editor's Note: Many publications are sent to me through professional courtesy as editor of the *TESOL Newsletter*. As mentioned in the article "Journals, Newsletters and Other Publications for ESL Teacher" (TN Nov. 1978), many of these publications are free, but are so because of Federal or local funding. This often limits their distribution geographically, professionally, or numerically and therefore the term 'free' may have been interpreted too freely. Please be understanding of the fact that many organizations though they would like to be able to accommodate all requests do have some difficulty doing so. A few others have written to me (and to you) stating they are available through subscription. With apologies to them and to you I have listed below some of these changes. Also included in this column will continue to be information on new publications, address changes, and subscription information. Thank you.

Team (Teachers of English: Arabian Monthly). The new name of the *ELI Monthly*, published by the University of Petroleum and Minerals, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. This is the result of the English program becoming the new English Language Center. The name of the NL in Arabic is *El Farq*. Available by writing to Robert Majure, Exec. Editor, P.O. Box 144.

JALT Journal. The semiannual journal of the Japan Association of Language Teachers. Its primary purpose is "to explore better ways of approaching the problems of language learning and teaching." Nancy Hildebrandt Nakanishi, Editor, English Dept., Kinjo Gakuin Univ., Oomori, Moriyama-ku, Nagoya 463, Japan.

CAI-FL/ESL Newsletter. (S) A new newsletter (first issue Jan/Feb 79) for those interested in Computer-Assisted Instruction. For subscription information write to the Editor, David O. McKay Institute, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah 87602.

ESPMENA Bulletin. This ESP publication from the U. of Khartoum, English Language Servicing Unit is apparently not available free in North America. It may be received at cost price, information for which may be obtained by writing to Karl Drobnic, EST Clearinghouse, ELI Ads, Oregon State U. OR 97331.

TECFORS Newsletter. This new publication gets its acronym from Teaching English Composition for Foreign Students. It is available by subscription through the English Dept., Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, MI 48197.

Mosaic. Available at a charge.

Communication Notes. This publication is available by subscription only. Subscription rates are half priced for members

of TESOL. For information write to CN, P.O. Box 1074, Silver Spring, MD 20910.

Notes on Linguistics. A good quarterly publication put together by the Ling. Dept. of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Inc. It contains practical as well as theoretical information. Also reviews and abstracts, reports and announcements of world wide interest. Is available at 75 cents an issue. Write The International Linguistics Center, 7500 W. Camp Wisdom Rd., Dallas TX 75236.

Creativity. Please note the address change for this publication: Av. 9 de Julho, 3166 CEP 01406, Sao Paulo, SP. Brazil.

NABE (National Association of Bilingual Educators) News. Published 5 times a year. Write Carolyn Ebel, Editor, BESL Center, 100 Franklin St., New Holland, PA 17557.

NABE (National Association of Bilingual Educators) Journal. Published 3 times a year. Write Dick Light, Editor, SUNY Albany, Albany, NY.

CATESOL Occasional Papers. Number 4, Fall 1978. Available (\$3.40) through Bob Gilman, Editor, University of Nevada, Reno, Nevada 89557.

Modern Language Teachers' Association of Queensland Journal, (MLTAQ Journal). No. 2 Issue, Sept. 1, 1978, entitled "Languages Unlock the World". Available by subscription. Write Gary Murray, Editor, 31 Thynne Ave., Norman Park, Q. 4170 Australia.

ALSED Newsletter. (Anthropology and Language Science in Educational Development). Change of Address: UNESCO, Division of Documents, c/o M. Hugot, 7 Place de Fontenoy, F-75700 Paris, France. The No. 13 issue contains a good summary of conferences held in 1978 and lists those to be held in 1979.

C-L/CLL Newsletter. New Address: P.O. Box 383, East Dubuque, IL 61025.

Illinois ESL Vessel. This excellent newsletter and the Illinois Statewide ESL/Adult Education Service Center publications are available at cost to those outside its funding area. Write: BESC, 500 S. Dwyer Ave., Arlington Heights, IL 60005.

APL/ESL Newsletter. A new publication for Adult Performance Level articles in ESL. It is available through subscription by writing Bob Ryan, Editor, Kishwaukee College, Malta Rd., Malta, IL 60150. TN 4/79

Answers and References for the Culture Contests printed in the *Convention Daily* (Vol. IV, Nos. 2-4) printed during the Boston Convention. The contest "segments" and the bibliography were prepared by Ann Hiferty of MATSOL.

Answers: Contest #1: Egypt, France, India; #2: Japan, Iran, England; #3: U.S.A., China, Colombia.

JOB OPENINGS

University of New Orleans. Assistant Professor, *English as Second Language*, 2 yr. appointment, August 1979. Ph.D., teaching experience, publications necessary. Write to Raeburn Miller, Chair, Dept. of English, UNO, lake front, New Orleans, Louisiana 70122. (504) 283-0273).

University of Pennsylvania. The English Program for Foreign Students, frequently has openings for part-time ESL instructors with an M.A. in TESL/TEFL and experience. Write: Dr. Barry P. Taylor, Director, English Program for Foreign Students, University of Pennsylvania, 3808 Walnut Street /BF, Philadelphia, PA 19104 (215) 243-8681.

Nagoya International College. Full-time instructors, beginning April, 1979. MA in TESOL, overseas teaching experience preferred. Send Vita to Nagoya International College, 1-7 Miyunishi-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan 464.

Yarmouk University, (Jordan). Applications are invited for appointments to the post of Professor, Assoc. Professor, Asst. Professor and Lecturer in the Department of English Language and Literature. Candidates for the highest positions should hold a Ph.D. in English, American Literature or linguistics. Write: Dean, Faculty of Science and Arts, Yarmouk University, IRBID Jordan.

School for International Training. Bilingual education specialist. Field experience at elementary level, language teaching methodology required. Good knowledge of Spanish desirable. Ph.D. preferred. Apply to Director, MAT Program, School for International Training, Brattleboro, VT 05301.

University of Nebraska at Omaha. ESL instructor. Requirements: Masters degree in ESL + one to two years overseas ESL experience. Send: Resume and complete dossier to: Dr. Samir Ghali, Intensive Language Program, University of Nebraska at Omaha, Omaha NE 68182.

Hamamatsu, Japan. ESL Teachers, write: The English Center, Co., Ltd., 11 Togi-Machi, Hamamatsu City, Shizuoka Prefecture 430, Japan.

University of New Mexico. Teaching Assistantship, English Tutorial Program. Write Dean Brodkey, Director, UNM, Albuquerque, NM 87131.

Teachers College, Columbia University, invites applicants for a faculty position in bilingual education at the level of Asst. Professor or Assoc. Professor. Qualifications: doctorate, substantial relevant professional experience, publications, skill in interpersonal relations. Send inquiries/credentials to Box 2, Teachers College, Columbia University, N.Y., N.Y. 10027. Deadline: March 15.

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JOB OPENINGS

Continued from page 27

University of New Hampshire. Visiting Lecturer or Visiting Asst. Professor. One-year replacement appointment to teach Introduction to Linguistics, Applied Linguistics (TESL), either Syntax and semantic theory or Phonetics and Phonology. Karl Diller, Dept. of English, University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire 03824.

Hunter College. Has ESL positions available 4/2/79. Send resume to Pamela McPartland, Director International English Language Institute of Hunter College, 466 Lexington Avenue, Room 1313, New York, N.Y., 10017.

Singapore. The Regional Language Center is looking for a specialist in Educational Technology, preferably someone with an ESL background. Write RELC, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 10, or contact Jack Richards, Lenox Hotel, Rm. 907.

The American Language Program, Columbia University, anticipates an opening commencing July 1, 1979, for a full-time associate in teaching ESL. M.A. in TESOL, applied linguistics or English plus three years of college-level ESL experience required. Responsibilities include planning and teaching courses in an intensive English program and participating in curriculum development. Salary: \$11,000 for two semesters; supplement for summer teaching. Yearly reappointment possible. Application deadline: May 10, 1979.

Opening for adjuncts interested in teaching 4-8 hours per week in a 7-week program beginning July 10, 1979, are also anticipated. M.A. as above plus one year of college-level ESL experience required. Salary: \$500-\$1100. Possibility of continued employment. Application deadline: June 1, 1979.

Applicants should send a curriculum vitae and a detailed description of their ESL experience to Louis Levi, ALP, 505 Lewisohn, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. 10027.

Hokkaido University has a vacancy for an American professor of TEFL starting in April 1979. Inquiries should be addressed to: Professor Jukichi Suzuki, Chairman, English Faculty, Dept. of General Education, Hokkaido University, North 17, West 8, Sapporo 060 Japan.

Korea University, one of the most prestigious universities in Korea, wants to invite an English Language professor starting in September of 1979 or March of 1980. Terms and conditions are: at least two year contract; \$8,000-10,000 per year plus housing; M.A. or Ph.D. degree holder in English or TESL. Inquiries should be addressed to: Chairman, English Faculty, Korea University, 1 Anam-Dong, Seongburg-Gu, Seoul, Korea.

Hiroshima Jogakuin. Instructor or Asst. Prof. to teach Oral English, reading, and comp. 2 yr. position beginning April 1979. This is a private, church affiliated women's college. Write to Dorothy A. Stroup, 10 Claremont Crescent, Berkeley, CA 94705 or to Kan Katayanagi, Chrm., Dept. of

English, Hiroshima Jogakuin, 4-13-1 Ushita-Higashi, Hiroshima 730 Japan.

University of Missouri-Columbia. Instructor: Intensive English Program beginning in June, 1979. Must have an M.A. in TESL or related area and experience teaching ESL at the college-level, send credentials, along with letters of recommendation, before April 6 to: Dr. Melvin C. Blase, Director, Intensive English Program, University of Missouri-Columbia, 230 Gentry Hall, Columbia, Missouri 65211.

Editor's Note: There were many exciting notices of jobs available at the Boston Convention both overseas and in the United States. Since we do not have addresses for applications available for many of these we suggest that you write to Charlotte Ball, TESOL Job Placement, 455 Nevils Bldg., Georgetown U., Washington, DC, 20057, for further information.

Cairo, Egypt. American University has several English Language teaching positions at their English Language Institute. Modest salary plus fringe benefits including transportation, housing, etc. Native speakers of English, MA in TEFL, and some teaching experience required. Send resume and letter of interest to: Director, English Language Institute, The American University in Cairo, 866 United Nations Plaza, New York, New York, 10017.

Continued on page 30

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THE CULTURAL EVOLUTION IN ESL

By Jean Romano
Willimantic, Conn.

The growing legal obligation for school districts to provide Bilingual education will change the nature of ESL teaching. The multi-cultural ESL class is one familiar part of second language learning but the ESL component of a bilingual-bicultural program differs in many ways. In many states at this time, programs designed for one or more specific languages exist. Within these programs, English is taught as one course in an academic learning situation presented in the students' primary language. ESL teachers recognize the differences in the two strands of the discipline and now is the time to develop a philosophy and curriculum to accommodate the duality.

Traditional ESL will follow established patterns in order to teach survival English quickly. It is in the component ESL that new methods, materials and philosophies must be developed. Materials are published geared to the initial learner. Advanced materials are disorganized and designed to remedy specific situations. Certain linguistic problems are identified and dealt with, but as yet, the remedies are like fingers in the dyke.

One difference in the ESL component program is the certainty that the ESL teacher will see students over a longer period of their school experience, in fact, over a period of years. When a student is considered ready for mainstream classes, success will depend as much on what the student knows of the second culture as it does on the students' mastery of the vocabulary and grammar of English. At this time, there is a lack of direction in this particular area of ESL that will increasingly affect bilingual-bicultural learners.

Especially in junior and senior high schools, implicit knowledge of cultural idioms is a prerequisite to understanding in both social studies and English classes. Many successful second language learners achieve assimilation in mainstream classes and entrance to college or university on the basis of their talents in mathematics and science, the disciplines least influenced by cultural differences. This is not an accident, and it is an indicator of one direction for component ESL classes to take in the future.

ESL as a subject within the bilingual-bicultural program is an important yet still amorphous entity; it is a subject in search of a structure. Surface knowledge of English alone does not equip a student to learn content material in a

classroom of native English speakers, and past injustices in public schools have given impetus to the concepts of Bilingual education. The native language is used in academic areas so that the student can grow intellectually while learning a second language. However, the more new knowledge attained in the native language, the more conceptual transfer must occur in the ESL classroom.

A bilingual program makes academic advancement possible during second language learning. The ESL program needs to present an explicit, sequenced structure for the second culture in order to give students the tools to compete in English in whatever fields they choose.

Unlike the limitations inherent in a "junior year abroad," the ESL student in this country is a living part of the second culture, perhaps for a lifetime. The greatest part of cultural expertise is learned outside the classroom, but this is not enough for academic achievement: cultures have a history. The combination of history and literature can be utilized to teach both language and culture. The relationship to the native culture is a pivot point in this procedure.

Literature chosen for elementary children can reflect the curriculum of the peer group. At the high school level, the methods used should be adapted to adjust to the language learning factors that apply to adult education. In a recent issue of the *TESOL Newsletter*, David Liston identifies some of the variables affecting adult language learners. They differ with individual situations but two that are noteworthy to this argument are the adult's preference for formal approaches and their preference for an ordering of material. (Liston 1978:4)

One possible approach to providing an understanding of U.S. culture is the use of U.S. history as a sequenced structure in conjunction with literature related to different periods in the country's growth. The term literature encompasses novels, drama, speeches and excerpts from all of these forms of expression. Chapters can be read to illustrate a historical moment; short quotations are often more valuable for initiating discussion than entire books. The ESL teacher becomes a story-teller of the past and the skills of ESL are in their proper order: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

ESL should extend the boundaries of this format by including the history of the students' country through comparison. The reasons for the development of cultural values can be investigated and the differences discussed. Characters in literature are analyzed for universal values and for their unique cultural qualities.

Teachers involved in bilingual education know their students well and can choose materials to suit the level of their classrooms; books that are studies of people and their moment in history, that bring up the universal questions of loyalty, love, conformity, poverty and prejudice. All of these issues should find a place in the ESL classroom.

References:

- Liston, David. (1978) "Adult Language Learning Variables that Affect Efficient Instruction." *TESOL Newsletter*, Vol. XII, No. 4, S78.
McLeod, Beverly. (1976) "The Relevance of Anthropology to Language Teaching." *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 10.

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IT WORKS

Continued from page 17

you record, wait a minute and record a second time. That will save some re-winding.

Option 3. Record the passage on tape. Play the tape as a listening activity when students arrive in the room. Later, divide into partners and distribute the passage in cloze format. Proceed as in #1 or #2.

Option 4. Make two forms of the passage, Form A and Form B, but don't tell the students that they have different ones. When you divide into partners the first time, make an aisle down the middle of your classroom. Give Form A to all the partners on one side, and Form B to the other. Whenever you change partners that day make sure that nobody crosses the aisle. Finally, on the last change of partners, tell everyone to get a new partner from across the aisle. Then, when they start working with their pages and comparing their work they will find that they can recreate the original by putting their forms together.

Whether I use Option 1, 2, 3, or 4, I always finish by giving each student a copy of the original as it was in paragraph form. The written, single-spaced paragraph form is what they usually meet and can't handle. Here it is again, only this time they know what to expect. Conscientious students often sit right down and read from beginning to end this "original" copy when they receive it at the end. One would think that they would know it forwards and backwards and that putting it back into paragraph form would be a waste of paper. But that's the beast that usually conquers them. There are certain kinds of language learners who take great pleasure in meeting that written word and knowing what it is talking about. I hope you have a classroom full of them.

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JOB OPENINGS

Continued from page 28

Portland State University. Instructor in ESL, MA and TESL experience. For academic year 79-80, non-tenured position. Write: N. Greis, Dir., Center for ESL, Portland State U. P.O. Box 751, Portland, OR 979207.

University of Nebraska at Omaha. Positions for ESL Instructor, section supervisor, and Coordinator of Intensive Language Program. Require MA in TESL. Write Personnel Services, U. of N.-Omaha, Omaha, NB 68182.

University of Illinois-Chicago Circle. Asst. Prof. Dept. of Linguistics. Fall 1979. Doctorate required. Expertise and experience in TESOL theory and practice. Write Andres Schiller, Head, Dept. of Linguistics, U. of Ill. at Chicago Circle, Box 4348, Chicago, IL 60680. (Deadline April 27).

Algeria. Teachers for Algerian Training Programs (and other overseas programs). MA in TESL or equivalent such as Peace Corps, French or Maghreb Arabic capability desirable. Write to Douglas K. Stuart, Mgr., Eng. Program, Gas Developments Corporation, 10 West 35th St., Chicago, IL 60616.

Northeastern Illinois University. ESL Instructor for college level non-native speakers of English. Supervising graduate assistants as well as teaching classes. M.A. in Linguistics/TESL with some additional course work and experience. Send resume to: Dean of the College of Arts & Sciences, Northeastern Illinois University, 5500 North St. Louis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60625. Northeastern Illinois University is an Affirmative Action Employer and invites ap-

plications from women and minorities as well as all other qualified individuals.

Saudi, Arabia. Northrop Company needs TEFL teachers for Saudi Arabia. Requirements are: minimum BA in English, linguistics, or a foreign language, plus one year's classroom experience in TEFL. Candidates with MA must be in the same disciplines or TEFL/TESL. Candidates with degrees in other disciplines must have a minimum of four years' TEFL experience of which two must be overseas. Housing, transportation for employee and family. Now considering applications for future vacancies. Qualified persons who have submitted applications previously will be considered and need not re-apply. Candidates meeting the above requirements please send detailed resumes to: Manager, English Language Training, Northrop Co., Box (B), APO New York, NY 09616.

Urbana, Illinois. The University of Illinois is looking for a director of the Office of Multi-cultural/Bilingual Education and for an assistant/associate professor (full-time tenure track positions). Applicants should have a strong background in Spanish and interest in international education. Send CV and four references to: Alan Peshkin, MULBIL College of Education, 358 Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

Bureau of Indian Affairs.

The Choctaw Agency has six Bureau of Indian Affairs schools within a radius of 50 miles of Philadelphia, Mississippi, to provide education for the Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians. One school has grades K through 12 and the other five schools have grades K through 8.

In Charenton, Louisiana, the Choctaw Agency has one day school for grades K through 9 for the Chitimacha Tribe of Louisiana.

Teaching positions will be filled through the Choctaw Agency located in Philadelphia, Mississippi. The Agency will maintain an applicant supply file which will be utilized each time a vacancy occurs. A selection will be made from those applicants on hand at the time.

Appointments will be temporary appointments. This type of appointment will entitle an individual to join a health benefit program and the life insurance program which are available to Federal employees. Social Security deductions will be made instead of Federal Retirement deductions. Individuals will be in a pay status during the school year.

The anticipated type of vacancies are: elementary; secondary English, math, science, reading, social studies, industrial arts; music; special education; guidance counselors; education specialist; physical education; principals, etc.

Should you desire consideration for an appointment with the Choctaw Agency school system, submit a Standard Form 171 (available from all Federal agencies) and a copy of your college transcript to: Choctaw Agency, 421 Powell Street, Philadelphia, Mississippi 39350.

Telephone inquiries for employment with the Choctaw Agency may be made by calling: Dorothy L. Pope, Personnel Office, 601 656-1521 ext. 35; O. D. Owens, Administrative Officer, 601 656-1521 ext. 32.

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Relate Language Learning to "Real Life!"

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- Please send _____ copy(ies) of *Communication Skillbook 2* @ \$3.95 ea.
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NEWSLETTER

Vol. XIII No. 3

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

June 1979

TEXTESOL-I SCORES NOTABLE "FIRST" SCHOLARSHIP TO TESOL SUMMER INSTITUTE ANNOUNCED

TEXTESOL-I announces that it will award a complete scholarship to the first annual TESOL Summer Institute, to be held at UCLA from June 25 through August 3, 1979, thus scoring a notable "first," not only for TEXTESOL-I but for all of International TESOL, according to Dr. Russell N. Campbell, Director of the Institute.

"It is a wonderful thing to do," Dr. Campbell says, "and we hope that this fine example will be imitated by other TESOL affiliates. We intend to see that they learn of it."

Rosita Apodaca, President of TEXTESOL-I, in announcing the scholarship said, "It is our intention to pay tuition, room and board, and travel for a member of TEXTESOL-I. About the only thing the student will have to buy will be textbooks."

The TESOL Institute in UCLA this summer is the "first annual" such Institute. Already one is being planned to be held in Albuquerque in 1980 and in Washington, D.C., at Georgetown University, in 1981.

TEXTESOL-I hopes, and intends, that its Student Scholarship this year will be merely the first in a series. Whether that comes to be depends of course on the support we, each of us, give our organization.

Reprinted from the *TEXTESOL-I Newsletter* Vol. I, No. 3, March 1979

Plan to attend the
TESOL SUMMER MEETING

July 13 and 14
on the campus of UCLA during
the TESOL Summer Institute
(July 25-August 3)

REPORT OF THE AD HOC COMMITTEE ON PRESENT AND FUTURE ESOL ACTIVITIES BY U.S. INSTITUTIONS AND INDIVIDUALS IN THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Ted Plaister
University of Hawaii

On Friday, 2 March 1979, at the behest of Bernard Spolsky, president of TESOL, the following named individuals met on an informal basis for two hours at the 1979 TESOL Convention in Boston to discuss what their respective institutions and individuals from those institutions had been, or plan on doing in the area of English language teaching and ESOL teacher training in the People's Republic of China (hereafter PRC):

PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION RECEIVES TESTIMONY ON ESL

Executive Secretary James E. Alatis continues strong efforts, both directly and indirectly, to put the needs of the ESOL profession before the President's Commission on Foreign Language and the International Studies. Those efforts include: (1) sending background material to the Commission members; (2) sending advice and backup material to affiliate members who have made presentations at regional hearings, i.e. CATESOL in San Francisco, TEXTESOL affiliates in Houston, NCA TESOL in Raleigh, and MATSOL at Rutgers University in the Boston area; (3) personally attending meetings and hearings in New York, Raleigh, and Boston; and (4) continued direct contact with the Commission's Executive Director Dr. Barbara Burn.

We reprint here a letter sent in March by Alatis to each member of the President's Commission, summarizing the main arguments why ESL should be one of their main concerns:

Continued on page 25

James E. Alatis, Georgetown University and TESOL; Jane Alden, ICA/ECA, Washington, D.C.; Edward M. Anthony, University of Pittsburgh; Charles H. Blatchford, University of Hawaii; Russell N. Campbell, University of California, Los Angeles; Ruth H. Crymes, University of Hawaii; David P. Harris, Georgetown University; Hai-lan Hsu, Wuhan University, PRC; Graeme Kennedy, Victoria University, New Zealand; Ted Plaister, University of Hawaii; Betty J. Robinett, University of Minnesota; Thomas Scovel, University of Pittsburgh; Bernard Spolsky, University of New Mexico and TESOL; Richard Tucker, Center for Applied Linguistics.

University of Minnesota

John Skillman of CIEE contacted Betty Robinett and asked the University of Minnesota to develop a teacher training program. Minnesota would provide 30-35 university teachers of English with 3 hours of English language instruction per day plus 2 hours of cultural activities for a 12-week period. The participants will be in the 35-40 year old range. The Chinese will pay regular university fees for their three hours of language instruction with the university providing for the other two hours of cultural information without charge.

Georgetown University

According to David Harris there are 36 scholars from the PRC currently enrolled in regular ESOL classes at Georgetown University. No special classes have been established; rather the Chinese are included with the regular students for their English language instruction. This system reportedly has worked very well.

Continued on next page

CHINA

Continued from page 1

There is a possibility that future groups will be coming. However, no definite commitment has yet been received by Georgetown University. The most proficient members of the current group were described as being in the "TOEFL 500 range," though the majority are middle-intermediate level students with a need for considerable help with their listening comprehension, reading, and writing.

University of California at Los Angeles

Russell Campbell reported that the PRC's Ministry of Education has already "paired" six Chinese universities with six U.S. universities for educational exchange purposes. A delegation from UCLA was invited to visit the PRC for three weeks in January to hold discussions with its "sister" institution in Canton, Chungshan University. Of interest to TESOL, one of the outcomes of this visit were two proposals. The first was a program designed to assist Chungshan University in redeveloping their modern language department (English), a 5-year program. Under this plan, 2 to 4 Chinese junior faculty members would come to UCLA each year for specialized training. These individuals would be "replaced" in China by qualified American graduate students from UCLA, students who could teach and do research in the PRC that would be compatible with their MA or Ph.D. studies. A senior staff member from UCLA (at this writing the most likely candidate is Professor Clifford Prator) would be invited to serve in the Modern Language Department as a consultant and visiting professor of English at Chungshan. The second proposal is a design for the establishment of an English Language Institute in Canton to give intensive language training to Chinese scholars chosen by the Ministry of Education to carry out advanced studies in English speaking countries prior to their departure from China. This Center would service Chinese scholars primarily those in the fields of science and technology (physics, chemistry, biology, engineering). The American staff for this program would again be primarily graduate students from UCLA or other graduate programs in TESOL, or applied linguistics, who had research projects compatible with the Center's goals. The negotiations for these programs are underway and a final decision is expected soon. Throughout his description of UCLA's involvement with the PRC, Campbell stressed UCLA's insistence on a strong research base as an integral part of any UCLA participation.

University of Pittsburgh

Thomas Scovel, currently on assignment in the PRC, provided some general

information on conditions in the PRC with respect to English language teaching. He stressed that the Chinese want *highly experienced* and *competent* people in the field of English language teaching. The Chinese are also interested in securing our scholarly publications and in joining our professional organizations (presumably such groups as TESOL, ACTFL, LSA, etc.). He also said that current policy is for intensive English language training *to be done in the PRC* (presumably in Canton at the proposed UCLA center). In addition to training in English, the Chinese are also quite interested in more and better teaching in the areas of English literature and culture. There is need for training, not only of teachers and professional people, but also of translators and interpreters. Scovel remarked that some confusion exists because of the variety of channels of communication that exist between the PRC and individuals and institutions in the U.S. At the present time there exist university to university contacts; individual (U.S.) to university and/or special institutes (such as the Peking Foreign Language Institute and the Peking School of Foreign Languages), individuals to individuals, etc. Within the PRC there would appear to be three primary contacts: 1) The Board of Foreign Experts (an autonomous group with a small overworked staff), 2) the Ministry of Education, and 3) individual universities and institutes.

Edward M. Anthony reported that a group from his university who had been to the PRC returned enthusiastic about the possibilities of academic exchanges. Subsequent to the visit, eleven people submitted applications to go to China. Thus far, 5 have been invited and accepted, others have been invited and have declined the invitations, still others are pending final decision. (As noted above, Thomas Scovel is already in the PRC at the Tianjin Foreign Language Institute.) According to Anthony, Pittsburgh recruits interested individuals and then the individuals make their own negotiations. He concurred with the recommendation of the Center for Applied Linguistics (see below) for some kind of clearinghouse and/or screening process to assist the Chinese in getting the best possible professional ESOL personnel. Anthony himself has been invited to China, but final arrangements in his case are still pending.

Center for Applied Linguistics

Richard Tucker, the Center's director, reported that he had convened a small committee earlier, in Washington, to recommend to Peking, via the auspices of the International Communication Agency, a list of some 12 institutions in the U.S., highly qualified to teach ESOL. The IIE Directory of English Language Institutes was used in completing the

list. Tucker said that in addition CAL was recommending that a screening procedure be established so as to assure, insofar as possible, two things: 1) that the Chinese invite the best possible people in ESOL, and 2) that the Americans going to the PRC be provided with adequate and detailed job descriptions and pertinent information relative to their positions in the PRC. To date no reaction to this second proposal has been received by CAL or ICA from officials of the PRC.

International Communication Agency, U.S. Government

Jane Alden reported that the Chinese had indicated an interest in having 7 or 8 teams of two to three people come to the PRC for periods of 8 to 12 weeks to conduct teacher training workshops following the reportedly successful pattern established by similar teams from the British Council. This idea will be discussed with the Chinese to clarify what is needed.

Graeme Kennedy, Victoria University, New Zealand

New Zealand has been sending 10 teachers per year since 1973 on a rotational basis. Currently there are 30 teachers from New Zealand in the PRC. In addition, there are 30 students from China in New Zealand. The program is seen as an ongoing one depending upon the desires and needs of the Chinese. Kennedy stressed that the Chinese are very much interested in literature and culture teaching as well as language teaching.

Professor Hai-lan Hsu, Wuhan University, PRC

The ad hoc committee was privileged to have the presence of Professor Hsu of Wuhan University who most capably, efficiently and with good humor presented her unofficial views of English language teaching problems and promises in the PRC. This delightful 80-year-old professor of English provided the group with extremely valuable information on such topics as the type of institutions offering English language instruction in China, e.g., *universities*, where both English language teaching and teacher training ensue; *institutes*, such as the Peking Foreign Language Institute where different languages are taught, but which are separate from the university system although the courses in language are comparable; *teacher training colleges*, "normal schools" and of course *secondary and primary schools*. Professor Hsu pointed out that literature teaching was stopped in the PRC in 1958. However, the teaching of literature is now being revived and such things as literature of the people, folk songs, etc.,

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something. The abstract *must* include a description of the goal(s) of the workshop, a theoretical framework or approach to be used, and the tasks to be performed by the participants.

Note: Proposals for mini-courses, colloquia and workshops should be accompanied by a cover letter which specifies the names, affiliation and specific contribution of each contributor/participant.

* PROCEDURES:

I. Before September 1, 1979, send the following items to the above address:

- a. Six copies of your 200 word typewritten abstract, two copies with your name ON, and four copies with your name OFF. Prepare the abstract as you would wish it to appear in the program.

Notes:

1. On the top of the page, indicate whether it is a proposal for a mini-course, a colloquium or a workshop, and the length of the presentation:

Mini-courses:	6 hours (1 day); 12 hours (2 days)
Colloquia:	6 hours (1 day) 12 hours (2 days)
Workshops:	3 hours (½ a day) 6 hours (1 day)

2. Limit the title to nine words.
3. Use plain white paper.

In addition to I, a (1, 2, 3) as just specified above, please follow procedures I, b (1, 2), c; and II, a, b (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), c, d, and e, outlined in the procedures for submitting papers and demonstrations.

MAKING YOUR ABSTRACT CONCRETE: HOW TO GET THE MESSAGE ACROSS IN 250 WORDS

Margot C. Kimball
and Adrian S. Palmer

For several years now we have been evaluating abstracts of papers submitted for presentation at the TESOL conventions, and we have often felt frustrated by abstracts which were either so vague or so unstructured as to make it nearly impossible for us to judge fairly the content lurking inside. Moreover, in some extreme cases, the author even appeared to be deliberately secretive about his intentions—a strategy which surely does not enhance the abstract's chances for acceptance.

Having wrestled with this problem, we have gradually developed some criteria for a well-written abstract, as well as a procedure for putting an abstract together. We believe that the criteria and the procedure, which are both discussed below, will help writers of abstracts communicate their intentions clearly to readers, though we cannot, of course, guarantee that the content will be interesting or worthwhile.

Criteria of a Good Abstract

The following are the criteria that we, as readers, apply when we evaluate an abstract. They fall into two categories: those criteria which indicate that the paper will be well presented and those

which indicate that it is *worth* presenting.

1. The abstract should state the author's topic and position clearly. It should say what he will talk about and why he feels it is important. For example, it is not enough for the abstract to state that the presentation will demonstrate a given technique; it must also state why the technique is important and to what use it may be put.

2. The abstract should outline the areas or sub-topics which the presentation will cover. It is not enough for the abstract merely to describe the technique being demonstrated; it must also indicate, for example, that the presentation will compare the technique to similar ones, will detail the steps the teacher must follow in using the technique, and will discuss ways of adapting the technique for students at different levels.

3. It should be apparent from the abstract that the amount of material to be included in the presentation can be covered adequately in the allotted time. Trying to cover too much in too little time will leave the audience both confused and, possibly, irritated.

4. The writing in the abstract should be literate. A poorly edited, unproofed abstract gives the impression that the paper or presentation will be equally ill-prepared.

While we use the above to judge how well thought-out the presentation will be, we rely on the following criteria as indications of whether or not it will make a valuable contribution to the field:

5. The topic should be of current significance for the specified audience. "Current significance," of course, does not neces-

sarily imply that only the new and the innovative are worth hearing. A workshop in applied linguistics, for example, may not necessarily present any new applications, yet it may still be of considerable interest to the classroom teacher.

6. The assumptions, premises, or experimental design upon which the presentation is based should be sound. While this is certainly a highly subjective consideration, it is also an important one. Thus, the abstract should give enough information—about the problem which the presentation will attempt to solve, about the premise on which the research is based, about the procedures which have been followed, or about the principles which underlie the application—that an informed reader can feel assured that the presentation is based on solid ground.

7. When it is relevant, the abstract should refer to some recognized authorities in the area. While there are, of course, many kinds of presentations for which it is either not necessary or not possible to refer to the literature, a brief reference to leading authorities does indicate that the author has done his homework and is building on a foundation which has already been laid.

A Procedure for Writing Abstracts

Now, how can all this be organized into a 250-word abstract? We have developed a three-step procedure for writing which is outlined briefly below and then illustrated with four well-written abstracts taken from past TESOL programs.

STEP 1. Give the background to the topic. State what the need or problem is, why there is such a need, and/or re-

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MAKING YOUR ABSTRACT

Continued from page 5

fer to others who have addressed this need.

STEP 2. State the thesis: describe the topic and the position you will take.

STEP 3. Give the divisions or sub-topics you intend to cover and, if relevant, the steps you will follow in your presentations.

Example 1

(Report on research which had been completed at the time the abstract was written. 1976 TESOL Program, 30 minute presentation.)

TOWARD THE MEASUREMENT OF FUNCTIONAL PROFICIENCY: CONTEXTUALIZATION OF THE 'NOISE' TEST

by Stephen J. Gaies
Harry L. Gradman
Bernard Spolsky

The noise test, as originally designed by a team headed by Bernard Spolsky, is a dictation of fifty discrete English sentences, varying in syntactic complexity, recorded on tape with accompanying background white noise. In terms of both its theoretical rationale (that is, that speakers of natural languages normally communicate under less than ideal conditions with reduced redundancy as the behavioral norm) and its statistical reliability, the noise test has generally been accepted as a useful instrument for evaluating overall English proficiency.

A recent study, however, suggests that "while the noise test brings into undeniably clear focus the nonnative proficiency of a subject, it exaggerates to some degree the difference between a subject's ability to function in a normal, real-life situation of reduced redundancy and that of a native speaker." The study also asserts that further judgements about the usefulness of the noise test can be made only after revision (with a special emphasis on contextualization of the instrument).

The present study describes the process of revising the noise test. The revision was carried out in such a way as to increase the face validity of the test in terms of the situation in which it is most often used: namely, to evaluate the proficiency of EFL/ESL students planning to pursue university degree work. The technical aspects of adding background noise are outlined. In addition, the problem of controlling for syntactic comparability among the test items is discussed, and preliminary data on the performance of revised instrument are given.

(Paragraphs 1 and 2 give the background. The first sentence in paragraph 3 states the thesis, while the rest of the paragraph outlines the sub-topics and the steps the presentation will cover.)

Example 2

(Report on research which was still in progress at the time the abstract was written. 1975 TESOL Program, 30 minute presentation.)

CHILD AND ADULT PERCEPTUAL STRATEGIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

by Eileen Nam

Bever and Denton (unpublished paper) showed that Spanish speaking children learning English as a second language go through the same stages in the use of NVN=SVO perceptual strategy (taking the first noun as the agent and the second as the object regardless of morphological cues) as do native children, although they do so at a later age because of their later exposure to the language. Ervin-Tripp (*TESOL Quarterly*, June 1974) showed that English speaking children learning French recapitulate the same developmental stages of production as do natives, again at an older age because of later exposure.

Adults learning a second language, however, appear to rely on strategies different from those available to the child. Bever, Nam and Shallo (unpublished paper) showed that Spanish speaking adults learning English as a second language do not go through the stages used by children with respect to the NVN=SVO strategy. Rather, they get better in the comprehension of all sentence types tested as their mastery of English increases.

All of the studies mentioned have dealt with Indo-European speakers learning an Indo-European language. If we are to begin to replicate the universal validity to such results, it is necessary to replicate the experiments with speakers of languages from other families. I propose to begin this needed research by comparing speakers of Korean and speakers of Spanish learning English as a second language.

My proposal is to use the same comprehension tests used by Bever and Denton, and Bever, Nam, and Shallo on adult and child native speakers of Spanish and Korean who are learning English as a second language, either through instruction or through exposure. Similar tests in the native language will also be given. The tests in English will be scored according to correctness, as will the tests given to the children in their native language. The tests given to adults in their native language will be scored according to reaction time, as few if any errors are expected. Each of the four groups will be divided into quartiles, as will both groups of adults and both groups of children; this will be done according to native English speaker raters' judgment of their mastery of English based on a taped oral interview.

The data will be analyzed in several ways. It will be determined whether the children, irrespective of native language, go through the same stages as Bever and Denton's subjects with respect to the NVN=SVO strategy. If not, it will be determined whether native language is a factor. The adults' data will be analyzed to see if the results of Bever, Nam, and Shallo are replicated and again to see if native language is a factor.

In addition for the adults (and possible for the children) it will be determined whether there are individual perceptual strategies. This will be done by comparing subjects' responses on the native language tests with their responses on the English test.

(Paragraphs 1 and 2 give the background. The thesis and position are stated in paragraph 3. Paragraphs 4, 5, and 6 outline the sub-topics and the steps the presentation will cover.)

Example 3

(Report on a teaching technique. 1978 TESOL Program, 30 minute presentation.)

A TECHNIQUE FOR AIDING SECOND LANGUAGE READING COMPREHENSION

by Howard R. Selekman
Howard H. Kleinmann

The participation of second language learners in communicative interaction activities has been recognized as a necessary step in developing learner communicative or sociolinguistic competence in speaking a second language (Hymes, 1972; Paulston, 1974). Few suggestions, however, have been offered as to how second language learners can effectively deal with the socio-cultural content of reading material, which often times is the source and cause of misunderstanding and misinterpretation.

The present paper describes a technique for facilitating reading comprehension in a second language at the intermediate and advanced levels. Rooted in the theoretical framework of Goodman (1972) and Smith (1971), who emphasize the importance of categorical organization and prior experience in reading comprehension, the present paper suggests the inclusion of a communicative interaction/problem solving activity in which the crucial underlying socio-cultural pattern(s) of the reading passage are actively experienced by students prior to the reading activity. The paper also reports on the application of this technique in an ESL class comprised of native speakers of Russian.

(Paragraph 1 gives the background. The thesis is stated in the first sentence of paragraph 2, and the rest of the paragraph outlines the sub-topics and the steps the presentation will cover.)

Example 4

(Workshop in materials development. 2 1/2 hour presentation.)

WORKSHOP IN CRITERION-BASED COMPOSITION GRADING

by Adrian S. Palmer
Margot C. Kimball

When the language teacher grades student compositions, he faces two major problems. First, he must decide what his criteria for grading are and how heavily to weight each one. While there are already a number of grading scales for compositions by native speakers (Diederich 1974, Braddock 1963, Cohen 1974), they are not properly weighted for evaluating non-native speakers' compositions because they emphasize style and editing over communicativity.

The presenters have developed a criterion-based and quantified composition grading kit which includes a set of grading scales, graded and annotated compositions at various levels, and a grading grid for the student. The system was developed specifically

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for the non-native speaker of English and has the following features: (1) It equates to the most widely-used composition grading scale, that of the Michigan Test Composition; (2) it not only establishes criteria, but quantifies the grading; and (3) it is easy to learn, and grading with it takes no more time than grading on a more wholistic basis.

The workshop will cover the following: (1) a discussion of problems of grading compositions; (2) a presentation of grading scales and the criteria for each area; (3) an analysis of graded student compositions; and (4) practice in grading sample compositions.

(Paragraph 1 gives the background. The first sentence of paragraph 2 states the thesis. The rest of paragraph 2 and all of paragraph 3 outline the sub-topics and the steps the presentation will cover.)

The Three Cardinal Sins

While the above abstracts illustrate what the writer of a good abstract *should* do, perhaps a word of warning about what *not* to do is in order here.

In the course of reading abstracts, we have identified the Three Cardinal Sins of writing abstracts. To highlight these sins—and otherwise exhort the Prudent to avoid them—we have trumped up some representatives of their breed, which we herewith offer, albeit diffidently, as Bad Examples.

The first says rather too much—and promises to exhaust the audience by doing so in a mere 20 minutes. The second, on the other hand, is a study in secrecy! it reveals nothing three different ways—and tritely, at that. The last one, however, is our favorite. We are offering a prize to the reader who can make sense of all that jargon. Moreover, while a restrained and careful reference to the literature sheds a glow of credibility to any abstract, citing 10 sources clearly constitutes a snow job.

Bad example 1

(The "All Your Eggs in One Basket Approach." 20 minute paper.)

THE BI-DIALECTAL PARADOX: IS BI-DIALECTALISM REALLY POSSIBLE?

With the current emphasis in the United States on programs which contribute to students' positive self image, the question of bi-dialectalism has assumed considerable importance. In this presentation, theoretical issues concerning the value of bi-dialectalism to the individual, the degree and amount of code switching involved, and the question of proficiency in not one but two dialects are explored. The problems of implementing, developing materials for, and staffing such a program will be discussed. The considerations of the feasibility of such a program will include a survey of the phonological and socio-linguistic issues involved; and a brief run-down on bidialectal

programs currently operating in the U.S.A., Canada, and India. Time permitting, a case history of the five year program instituted at Panguitch, Utah in 1973 will be presented.

Bad example 2

(The "Don't Go Near the Water" approach.)

HOW THE OTHER HALF LIVES: AN ATTEMPT AT LETTING THE LEFT HAND KNOW WHAT THE RIGHT HAND IS DOING

Most ESL programs operate for and by themselves. As a result they are isolated from the innovative approaches and techniques of other programs—approaches and techniques which could be of great use to them.

The authors will attempt in their presentation to "let the left hand know what the right hand is doing" by surveying the innovative approaches and techniques used in Thailand. It is the thesis of this paper that "what's sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander," and that an exploration of cross-insemination of ideas in Thailand will prove useful in any country where ESL programs operate in isolation.

Bad example 3

(The "This'll Kill 'em in Carson City" approach.)

A THEORY OF INTERPERSONAL SYLLABI: 60/20/20, THE GOLDEN MEAN

This paper proposes a way of organizing materials for language didactics which the authors call the "interpersonal syllabus." Based upon Lewin's Field Theory, an offshoot of the Berlin Gestalt Group, the goal of such a syllabus is to create the optimum environment for three types of native-non-

native feedback in dyadic interaction. Turescheva and Comaneci (1976) have identified three types of corrections: "negative plus" protocols, "positive minus" protocols, and "negative minus" protocols.

A survey of the literature reveals that a 60/20/20 ratio is optimum. This is in line with the findings of Anusvara (400 B.C.), Grimm and Grimm (1893), Grmzowski and Hsiu (1964), Jarvik (1912, 1932, 1962, 1978), Neilson, Schilling, and Jennings (1883), Ntsantsa (personal communication), Richelieu (1758), Sakamoto (1977, 1978), and Smith (in press).

Next, the authors describe several popular approaches to sequencing to see whether or not they incorporate this optimum balance of correctional heuristics. They conclude that most existing syllabi emphasize "positive minus" correction—with the result that the classroom ambience is either unfavorable, affectively speaking, or unconstrained (in the usual "laissez-faire" sense).

As a way around this problem, the authors propose the Interpersonal Syllabus (technical term) in which the syllabus developer begins, not by selecting structures, but by providing a climate for self-selecting affective-correctional routines. It is believed that these routines limit the verbal content of the interpersonal transactions in such a way that the cognitive load does not exceed the limitations of short term memory.

A Proposed Rating Chart for Abstracts

In order to quantify the evaluation of abstracts, we have constructed a rating chart which provides a weighted scale for each of the criteria mentioned above.

A. Indications that the paper will be well presented

	High	Medium	Low
1. Author's topic and position are clear	(6)	(3)	(0)
2. Abstract gives a list of areas or sub-topics the presentation will cover	(6)	(3)	(0)
3. The amount of material outlined can be covered adequately in the time allotted	(6)	(3)	(0)
4. The writing is literate	(6)	(3)	(0)

B. Indications that the paper is worth presenting

5. The topic is of current significance for the specified audience	(6)	(3)	(0)
	Yes	No	
6. The assumptions, premises, or experimental design upon which the presentation is based is sound	(0)	(-12)	
7. IF APPLICABLE: The abstract refers to some recognized authorities in the area	(0)	(-6)	

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EST IN INTENSIVE ENGLISH PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

By Patricia Byrd
University of Florida, Gainesville

Current demands for classes in the English of Science and Technology (EST) create special problems for intensive English programs because of the nature of such programs and also because of the continuing uncertainty as to what EST actually means. Some of these problems derive from the mixed backgrounds and needs of the students in such programs. For example, the advanced level of the graduate track at the University of Florida's English Language Institute in the Winter Quarter, 1978, included 18 students who planned to matriculate into M.A. programs and 1 student who planned to work on his Ph.D. Although their English proficiency levels were practically identical, their fields of specialization were widely divergent, including educational psychology, educational media, chemistry, business, accounting, physics, and agriculture. It would be unrealistic to expect an English teacher to have command of the specialized terminology, concepts, formats, and usage of so many professions. It would also be financially prohibitive to hire specialists in the English of physics, the English of educational psychology, the English of chemistry, etc.—even if such specialists existed.

The problem of deciding what to put into an EST course can be solved only through careful reconsideration of the role of the English teacher and of the uses to which foreign students put English. Accusing English teachers of being afraid of—or hostile to—science is not an adequate response to doubts about just what should be required of the English teacher. On the other hand, it would smack of the widest sort of intellectual arrogance and ignorance to think that a specialist in ESL could brush up his physics and start leading his students through physics texts and journals. In addition to examining the demands to be made on teachers in EST courses, curriculum planners who are making EST additions should keep in mind four considerations about the kinds of English needed by foreign students in American colleges and universities:

(1) The native speaker of English who enters a training program—vocational or academic—does not know the technical terminology yet either. One purpose of the scientific or technical

training program itself is to teach such terminology.

(2) The non-native speaker of English who comes to the U.S. to take his professional training has to live in an English-speaking environment. He must have a more general kind of preparation in English to be able to survive outside the classroom.

(3) Moreover, the general English serves as a general context for his specialized English. Typically, foreign students are in classes that are primarily for Americans. Thus, the teacher will be explaining new, unknown information in terms that he hopes his American students will understand. When analogy is used—as it frequently will be—the foreign student will have problems because he will not understand the very part of the explanation that the teacher expects to be helpful. In an article on atomic clocks, the functioning of certain electrons is explained in terms of the functioning of a top: "Put simply, certain chemical elements carry near the outer edge of each atom a single electron that spins on its axis, like a tiny, incredibly fast top." It would be stretching things to call "top" technical vocabulary, but it is likely that a foreign student would have as many problems with "top" as with "electron"—and perhaps more.

(4) Teachers of foreign students in a variety of academic programs repeatedly comment that the students have problems not with the technical language or special formats of each profession but rather with the English that holds it all together. For a hypothetical example, take the agriculture student who understands all of the technical names of the chemicals he is studying but is not sure about the difference between "put on" and "take off."

In the *EST Newsletter* for December, 1977, Karl Drobnic quoted H. G. Widowson's comment that teachers sometimes achieve their goals by indirection rather than by direct attack on the problem:

The best way may not be what appears to be the most direct route, although one is generally inclined to think that it is. . . . It may be that the students could be more effectively prepared by a course which developed more general communicative strategies over a wider range of language use, which concentrated not so much on direct teaching as on favorable set towards language learning. I am not saying, please note, that the direct route is necessarily the wrong one but only that it is not necessarily the right one.

The assumption that teaching EST means teaching only technical content is a good example of such erroneous

going-straight-to-the-point. There are many things that the English teacher can do as an English teacher to prepare students for academic training in science and technology. Teaching them English or American literature is probably not one of them. Although it may be difficult for English or American literature majors to accept, literature is of limited use in preparing non-natives for academic programs in American universities, especially for graduate work in a scientific or technical area. Even undergraduates will not be required to take many literature courses, if any—and learning to read poetry will not be of much help in reading the textbooks used in undergraduate courses in art or history or political science. On the other hand, using non-literary materials as the basis for reading or writing eliminates much of the puzzling cultural content that causes problems in understanding the literature of a different language.

The discussion of EST involves a great deal of muddled thinking because of an obsession with the dichotomy between the English of literature and the English of technical writing. In reality, the choice is not between literature on the one hand and technical content on the other, for there is a third possibility: The ESL teacher can help his students with the language that sticks everything together—with "put on" and "take off." Removal of technical vocabulary reveals that what is left could be, for the most part, used in any non-literary paper. This is not to say that EST is just a vocabulary problem but rather that if the strange vocabulary is removed much of what is left will be very familiar to an English teacher.

The difference between the grammar of general English and that of EST has been exaggerated by faulty descriptions of general English. Pedagogical grammars have overgeneralized and oversimplified the grammar of general English by saying that rules are invariable when they are variable and by giving only one use when there are several uses of a form.

For example, all too often students are being taught that *will* is the only future tense marker in English and *will* means only future time. It is more accurate to teach that although English has many ways of referring to future time, it does not have any one form that refers purely to the future. In addition to all modals and semi-modals like *ought to*, ways of referring to the future include simple present tense (*The play opens tomorrow night. The Party is on Saturday.*) and *be going to* (*I am going to eat lunch at 12:30.*) Even past tense

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OPENING THE LANGUAGE HUB

By Courtenay S. Chadwell
Colonia, Yap, W. Caroline Is.

The traditional language laboratory, with a central monitoring station and rows of booths containing earphones, is one of the most tedious aspects of foreign language learning. Even the most avid language student is filled with boredom in the clutches of the lab. Too many students spend too many hours slumped in the booths, thinking of something other than the material they are supposed to be practicing, doing assignments for other classes, or sleeping, but managing to produce rote utterances in the event the monitor is listening. The mechanical atmosphere soon loses its intrigue. The lack of personal contact has a deadening effect on the motivation of most students.

The traditional system may serve a function in an area where the target language is not spoken. It is then a means of oral practice which the learner would not otherwise have, and, provided the student has the will to use it earnestly, it is helpful. In an area where the target language is spoken, however, I believe it serves little or no function. In this situation, the student can be encouraged or required to practice speaking with native speakers outside of class. This type of activity is closer to communication, which is, after all, our objective. Oral drill work should be done in class.

The time and expense spent on the traditional laboratory could be applied to an alternative system that would stimulate, rather than deaden, the students' interest in the language. The laboratory I have designed is based on the open classroom model. This system can be used by any age level, from preschool to college and adult, and by any language level or combined levels. It can also accommodate a heterolingual group. And it is possible to implement at less expense than the traditional lab.

As with any open classroom, there are various stations which the students visit. The younger the students, the more visually interesting the stations should be. In the design below there are six stations; some of these could be combined and/or others added.

We first come to the *Listening Comprehension & Pronunciation Station*. Tapes are essential for this station. Listening comprehension tapes include minimal pairs and minimal sentences. For more advanced students there are taped anecdotes, paragraphs, and lectures, the comprehension of which must be demonstrated in either written or

spoken form. Pronunciation tapes produce utterances for the students to mimic. The type of tape which allows for student response (which can be taped over without crasing the model) allows the students' work to be checked later. A Language Master is very helpful for pronunciation and listening comprehension practice. Written words, sentences and paragraphs can also be used for pronunciation work; blank tapes should be provided for this type of practice, so the students, as well as the teacher, can listen and check their pronunciation.

The *Conversation Station* is arranged to accommodate practice by a single student, or by a pair or small group. Alone, a student can talk about one of the set of pictures, or choose one of the suggested impromptu speech topics. Or s/he can work with a tape which contains one voice of a telephone conversation or an interview. A pair or group of students can choose a card presenting a situation to be role-played. Or they can finish the beginning of a conversation, as presented on tape or on a card. They can debate an issue, or interview each other. All practice at this station should be taped for later listening.

The *Grammar Station* is much like traditional language lab work. There are taped exercises, repetition, substitution and transformation drills, to practice that which has been presented previously in class. In addition, there are written exercises to review class work.

The *Reading Station* contains two sections. One section is concerned with reading skills. Given short readings, the students complete written exercises which test comprehension, grasp of the central idea, and speed. For beginning students, pictures are used to test comprehension. The other section is a library. All students are encouraged to do some free reading each week. A period of time is designated for reading. Books at appropriate levels, magazines, newspapers, and comics have been collected for the library.

At the *Composition Station* there are different types of exercises for different levels of proficiency. For young stu-

dents, or those for whom the target writing system is new, there are handwriting exercises. For intermediate students there are controlled composition exercises (such as changing a paragraph from third person to first, or from present to past tense). For more advanced students there are story starters, pictures to be described, letters to be answered, and ideas for business letters to be written. There are also paragraph-writing exercises, and ideas for themes and essays.

Our final stop is the *Vocabulary Station*. Here there are word building exercises, practicing affixes and root meanings. There are exercises and games to practice antonyms and synonyms. Definition exercises differ according to level: lower-level students can identify pictures, or choose the correct description of what is happening in a picture; higher-level students can determine a definition from a word's context. There are also games at this station—word games, such as crossword puzzles and jumbled words, and board games, such as Scrabble, Probe, etc. And there are dictionaries and thesauri.

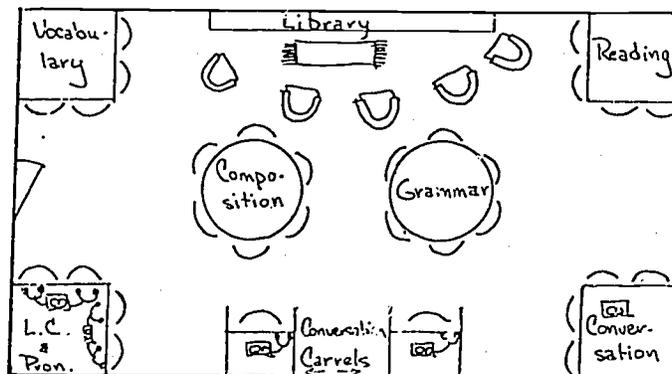
These six stations cover what I consider to be basic needs of a foreign or second language program. A teacher might feel more comfortable combining reading and vocabulary, and want a separate *Games Station*. Other stations could be added. For example, a *Cross-Cultural Station* or a *Study Skills Station* might be desired. Or a *Newspaper Station* would be helpful at a school publishing a student newspaper. There are also many more possibilities for materials, which can be made or purchased.

Once the stations are defined and the materials for each obtained, an operational system must be established. I have found the following system to work well.

On the first day, each student is given a folder for completed exercises. A record sheet, also kept in the folder, allows space for the date, station, exercise(s) completed, and points given for each exercise. Two points are given for each exercise done well, one point for each done satisfactorily, and none for those done poorly.

In most classrooms, the teacher needs to set up some guidelines. I require that each station be visited each week. Once an exercise is completed at each station, the students may choose any activity they like. The required stations may be visited in

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LANGUAGE HUB

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any order the students wish. (Limited equipment would perhaps necessitate a schedule for certain stations.) Some teachers may wish to control which exercises are done by students at each station. I have found that the suggestion that a certain exercise is too easy or too difficult (usually the former) is sufficient guidance. In determining the minimum amount of weekly work, it is essential that slower students be given enough time to complete the basic requirements.

At the end of the term, the students are evaluated according to the number of points they have accumulated throughout the term. A curve will stimulate competition, but it tends to penalize the slow, thorough students. An alternate system is a B grade given for completion of the required exercises (well done); extra work is required for an A.

This model is more sensible than the traditional language lab in several ways. Like the latter, it is individualized. Students may work at their own levels; they may review material they did not fully grasp in class or work on material more difficult than that done in a class. The teacher is free to roam from student to student, making suggestions and offering help.

Unlike the traditional lab, the open-classroom model strengthens independent work. This lab is student-centered rather than teacher-centered. Freedom to choose exercises and/or the order in which they are done encourages students to see learning and studying as their own responsibility. This is particularly important for students intending to enter American colleges or universities, where independent study is becoming more and more common.

Unlike the traditional lab, which allows the students to practice only speaking and listening, this lab allows them to work on all language skills. This aspect is pertinent to any language-learning situation, but especially to language programs in countries where the target language is spoken. Students have more opportunity to practice speaking outside of class. The lab time can be used for any area in which they need more work, as well as general support for all language skills.

And most unlike the traditional lab, this system is stimulating and interesting. It offers a variety of activities to develop a variety of skills. It offers flexibility in class procedures. It allows movement. And it allows personal, human contact between teacher and student on a one-to-one basis. With today's crowded classrooms, a more humanized environment, rather than a more mechanized one, is certainly in order.

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EST IN INTENSIVE ENGLISH

Continued from page 15

forms of the verb can refer to future time in conditional sentences (*If he brought the money tomorrow, I would be very surprised.*).

The meaning of *will* has been described by Madeline Ehrman, *The Meaning of the Modals in Present-Day American English*. The Hague. (1966, as "the occurrence of the predication is guaranteed, either in a concrete (future time function) or a general (neutral time function) context. . . ."

1. He will go to the beach this weekend.
2. Oil will float on water.

In (1) the speaker is guaranteeing a future time occurrence of a particular event while (2) is a generalized statement which does not refer to a specific future time. The following examples of the use of generalized, non-future time *will* are taken from various professional journals and reference books selected to represent both science and technology.

1. Certain highly purified and finely divided metals will also react with hydrogen at room temperature. . . .
2. It is generally wise to assume that finely divided samples of any of the alkali hydrides will react vigorously with oxidizing agents and there is some hazard of detonation with powerful oxidants.
3. The adults may be kept in a large aquarium or tank on a diet of Tubifex, earthworms, or beef liver, and will breed again the following year.

Students who are preparing to enter scientific or technical fields must know that *will* has the potential to be used in future time statements or in non-future time generalized statements about characteristics or inherent qualities. Although general truth statements are primarily made with simple present tense forms of the verb (*Oil floats on water*), uses of *will* for that meaning are common enough to cause problems for any student who attempts to interpret them in terms of future time.

However, all of these generalizations about *will* and present tense are true of English not just of technical or scientific usage. Therefore it should not be necessary to teach them—or many other aspects of English—in the context of materials from physics or medicine or diesel engines. Thus it would appear that ESL programs do not need to be quite literal in adding EST preparation to their curriculums, for an informed understanding of English will prepare students to deal with much that they find in their technical and scientific courses.

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NAMES AND FACES IN BOSTON



Walter Dean



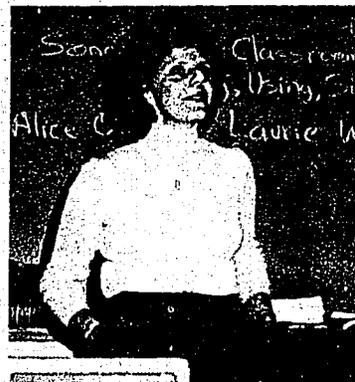
Walter Powell Allen



Rita Lanell Stahl



Dick Yorkey & Bob Maple



Prof. Ima Phoneme (Laurie Wellman)

AFFILIATE SIG NEWS

EFL FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS IN ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

At the Business Meeting on Thursday, March 1st, we decided to revise the Statement of Purpose which was published in the TESOL '79 program and we elected new officers. Mike Jerald of the School for International Training is the new Associate Chairperson, Harvey Taylor of the Economics Institute, the University of Colorado, is the SIG's representative to the Advisory Council, and Hope McKenzie of West Texas State University is the group's representative on the Nominating Committee. On the last day of the convention a group of SIC members met to discuss the interests of the group and to plan next year's program.

In order to present a program which will interest the membership Mike Jerald and Cathie Tansey request that members send their suggestions for topics which could cover such areas as methodology, materials development, the cultural orientation of students or the administration of ESL programs. In addition to suggesting a topic, interested members should indicate whether or not they would like to participate in the program and specify the form (panel discussion, lecture, etc.) which the program should take.

Please send your responses to: Catherine Tansey, American Language Academy, Babson Park, Ma. 02157.

APPLIED LINGUISTICS SIG REPORT

At both the rap session and the planning meeting of the Applied Linguistics Special Interest Group at Boston there was nearly unanimous support for the 6-minute paper format initiated at the 1979 Convention. Due to this favorable response, the 6-minute format will again be followed in the ALSIG Program at the 1980 Convention. For that program, presentations will again be both theoretical/research and practical. Classroom teachers are invited to submit proposals for 6-minute papers that raise practical concerns or problems encountered in the classroom. Applied linguists working in areas such as bilingual education, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, reading or evaluation will be invited to give brief overviews of these areas and to address themselves to the specific classroom problems raised in the papers. A more specific description of the program will be given in upcoming issues of the *Newsletter*.

SESD/SIG ADOPTS NEW STATEMENT OF PURPOSE AT BOSTON CONVENTION

From Walter I. Dean, Jr.,
SESD/SIG Chairperson

The Standard English as a Second Dialect Special Interest Group was formed to serve the interests of those speakers of English whose dialects differ from standard English and span the full range of ethnic and socio-economic origins. Included are such dialects as those of Afro-America, Appalachia, Hispanic communities, and others.

SESD is concerned with practical and theoretical considerations related to the educational problems, at all levels, encountered by students who do not speak standard English. In addition, SESD is concerned with sociolinguistic issues, theoretical and practical, which emanate from a difference in dialects.

Our challenge, as well as our commitment, is to develop and disseminate information about programs which improve the educational achievement of students for whom standard English is a second dialect. Among the objectives of the SIG are the following:

1. To stimulate thought and inquiry into the problems of second dialect speakers.
2. To foster awareness of the implications of dialect differences for education.
3. To disseminate available information about successful instructional strategies and materials.
4. To offer assistance in the training of teachers to enhance the possibility of educational success for second dialect speakers.

In order to achieve these objectives SESD will undertake, among other things:

1. The presentation of workshops, colloquia and scholarly papers at TESOL conventions, as well as at other professional organizational meetings.
2. To stimulate research on dialects, evaluation of teaching-learning programs and related concerns through the efforts of its membership and that of interested members of other TESOL SIG's.
3. The development of materials for teacher-training programs, in-service activities and classroom use.
4. The development of vehicles for appropriately disseminating the results of these activities to interested professional and lay persons.

INTER-CULTURAL APPRECIATION IN AN ESL CLASS

By Judy E. Winn-Bell Olsen
*Alemany Community College
Center, San Francisco*

In a speech at the CATESOL Conference on March 5, 1978, Mary Finocchiaro made a plea for promoting a larger cultural understanding in our ESL classes by encouraging awareness and appreciation by the students of *all* the cultures represented in a mixed ESL class.

This makes particular sense in a city of great cultural diversity such as San Francisco. On the street, on the bus, in the post office, hospitals, department stores, movies, etc. the "typical" San Franciscan may well be Asian, Latino, Filipino or Black. How often do our teaching materials reflect the ethnic mix of our cities? Not often enough, I think.

But no matter what the students' world is like outside the classroom, there is another very good reason for promoting intercultural awareness inside the classroom—and that, of course, has to do with the sense of self—and pride in oneself—that is necessary to be a truly "whole" individual.

How can we promote this self-awareness and pride, along with an interest in other cultural groups, in a mixed ESL class? I'd like to describe a series of events that happened, almost by accident, in my intermediate ESL class at Alemany CCC.

It was a late afternoon class, and everyone was a little tired by the time they got there. It wasn't a good time to load on new grammar and vocabulary, but it was a good time to get people talking, if they had the right stimulus. As it happened, the class was divided into two groups: Latinos (Mexicans, Guatemalans, El Salvadorans) and Asians (Vietnamese, Cambodians, Hong Kong Chinese, and Taiwanese). Their ages ranged from 18 to 25.

The time was Chinese New Year's, February 1978. (In San Francisco, Chinese New Year's is one to three weeks in length, the first part being quiet family celebrations, and the last part, public festivities.) We had just finished reading a newspaper article on the celebration, and had talked about the famous parade that would take place the following week.

I had brought some Chinese red envelopes to class to talk about, and as a last minute inspiration, did the following. I divided the class into groups of three or four, making sure that there was at least one Asian and one Latino in each group. Then I gave a red envelope to each Latino, and said, "Find out what this is. Find out everything

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INTER-CULTURAL APPRECIATION

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you can about it. You have 10 minutes." It was their responsibility to ask questions of the Asians in their small groups and take notes.

Well. The discussion noise-level grew and grew. Ten minutes later, all groups were still going strong, and it wasn't until nearly half an hour later that they were ready to come together. The Asian students thoroughly enjoyed explaining their customs of giving money in special red envelopes on important occasions (at Chinese New Year's, to children and young unmarried men and women). The Vietnamese and Cambodians had their own variations of the same custom. One of our Hong Kong women was somewhat of a scholar of classical Chinese, and was able to explain the history and significance of each little gold symbol on the red envelope—to the edification of all.

The Latino students were fascinated and full of questions.

After the groups were satisfied that they had covered the subject, we put our desks in a large circle and "quizzed" our "students"—that is, the Latinos were asked leading questions by their Asian mentors—who of course helped them with the answers when needed. It was interesting to all of us that the "cultural experts" did not always agree with each other one hundred per cent on some of

the finer points. Who can say exactly what a cultural tradition is?

I was pleased that day—my last-minute technique to promote conversation had succeeded beyond all expectations. Now, how could I carry it further? Specifically, how could I set up another situation in which the Latinos could be the experts and the Asians the questioners? I asked my Latino students for suggestions after class—could they think of a "cultural something" common to their three nationalities that we could share with the other students?

A few days later, something did present itself—not specifically Latin American, but common to North and South America and to most of the European cultures which have influenced the New World. The occasion was Valentine's Day, with which my Asian students were somewhat familiar. The particular cultural item we discussed was a red silhouette of Cupid, with bow, arrow and hearts. Again we broke into small mixed groups. This time, the Asians were given a paper Cupid (I had gotten a set of six for 49¢ at a stationery store). Cupid was a new entity to the Asians; this time, the Latinos were the experts.

When we came back together for general class discussion, it seemed a good time to mention the influence of Greek and Latin ideas and language on Western civilization. Cupid and Saint Valentine himself (albeit indirectly) come from these traditions, as do aspects of many of our other holidays, one way or

another. It was a good time to compare the influence of the Greeks and Romans on Western civilization to the Chinese influence on Eastern civilization, and to talk about keeping some of the old customs in today's modern world.

By Easter time, our class had grown to include, among others, two Iranians and a Greek. After a reading and discussion about the blending of the Pagan celebration of Spring and the Christian observance of Easter, we all tried our hand at coloring eggs. This prompted our Iranians to talk about their New Year's celebration, observed on or about Easter time, during which they also dye and give eggs. This was a new one for the teacher, as well as the class!

Then our Greek student mentioned her custom of giving red eggs at Greek Orthodox Easter, which usually occurs somewhat later than the Easter that most Americans observe. That prompted the Chinese to tell about the red eggs that are traditionally given, with ginger, at the one-month birthday celebration for a baby boy. Another cultural exchange of information.

That started all of us conjecturing. Hmm . . . red eggs. Symbols of fertility and new life. Do you think, if we could trace these Greek and Chinese customs back far enough, we could find any connection? It's fun to think about, anyway. And who knows what other inter-cultural similarities will appear, once we begin to look for them?

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BOOK REVIEWS

*Writing Efficiently: A Step by Step
Composition Course*

by Barbara Seale,
Prentice-Hall, 1978

Reviewed by Diana Denson,
Brooklyn College

If your advanced writing students are highly motivated but unchallenged, *Writing Efficiently: A Step by Step Composition Course* is a noteworthy text that goes beyond sentence-level grammar to an in-depth analysis of the paragraph and theme. A comprehensive advanced writing course in itself, *Writing Efficiently* examines the writing process step by step from preparation to the final judging and polishing of the theme.

The materials were used in the University Preparatory Workshop at New York University's American Language Program with advanced nonnative English speakers and native speakers in the General Studies Program. The author recommends the text for students who "illustrate general control of simple sentences with some errors in word forms," and more advanced students who "show control of basic sentence structure and fewer errors in word forms". In adopting the text, accurate determination of English proficiency level seems to be an important consideration.

The opening chapter draws the student's attention to the look, length and structure of a paragraph. Also treated are the use and misuse of transitional expressions and their effect on paragraph continuity. In chapters two and three, the step by step writing process includes an introduction to the type of theme, reading selections illustrating theme development, and the purpose, organization, content focus and format of the assignment. Sample student themes are also included to give the student a realistic estimate of what other ESL students have produced. An excellent feature of the text are the worksheets which provide checklists of the important components of specific theme types. To be used with a partner, they aid the student in evaluating his own work before consulting the teacher. Chapters four and five deal respectively with judging and polishing and reading and summary writing. Two notable aids suggested are skimming and "close reading" (continuous questioning and evaluating as you read).

Writing Efficiently is an ambitious text, and it is in this regard that its few difficulties surface. A potential problem is that too many concepts and terms that are likely to be unfamiliar to the ESL student are introduced in one chapter. For example, excerpts from the writings of Margaret Mead and William F. Buckley are used. Although the author combines written explanations with diagrams and illustrations for clarity, they still risk becoming overwhelming. The reading selections, albeit contemporary and thought-provoking, also risk posing too much of a challenge. Perhaps a glossary of potentially difficult words found in both the explanations and reading selections would prove helpful. Exercises that helped to reinforce new rhetorical concepts and terminology might also be beneficial.

Finally, *Writing Efficiently* is rich and demanding. If the complexity of vocabulary creates an obstacle, the valuable suggestions and the high interest of reading selections will press the student to go on. The likelihood seems great that the advanced student who completes this book will emerge a more confident, organized and able writer.

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Talk It Over: Discussion Topics for Intermediate Students by L. G. Alexander, M. C. Vincent, and J. Chapman: Longman Inc., 1978, 62 pages.

Review by Janice M. Bogen,
University of Tampa

Discussion topics that are interesting, meaningful, and instructive for intermediate level teenage and young adult ESL students are hard to come by. However, Alexander, Vincent, and Chapman have collected thirty lessons that qualify for all of the above in the handy sixty-two page paperback. *Talk It Over*. Each two-page lesson is easy to understand and stimulating enough to fill fifty-minute speaking/listening classes. There is variety in the presentation of the topic—text, fables, photographs, cartoons—and all can be used to practice question asking and answering skills, opinion giving, and conversation skills.

The authors include a suggested lesson plan in their introduction, but teachers can use their imaginations to introduce topic-related activities such as role plays, debates, and questionnaire development. These kinds of activities will allow a teacher to become more of a facilitator than an instructor during the fifty-minute class periods; in addition, the activities will give the students tremendous opportunities to be creative. It would be fun, for example, to help students devise their own mystery-suspense thriller, based on the information

given in Lesson 12, "A Good Alibi." Lesson 16, "Stop the Electronics Monster," could provide the basis for a lesson on questionnaire developing and opinion gathering techniques and procedures. Students could then go into the community to find out how other English speakers feel about electronics invading their lives. The story about the young scientist experimenting on spiders, Lesson 22, can lead to a debate on the pros and cons of experimentation with animals in laboratories. There is potential for original role plays about job interviewing (Lesson 1), communicating across generations (Lessons 19, 26), and what schools should teach (Lesson 23). Included in every chapter is a section of questions called "Talking It Over." These questions can be the basis for short individual speeches.

Besides providing good topics for conversation, the book includes a short section on phrases that one normally uses when giving an opinion, to express a personal point of view, or to agree or disagree with someone else's point of view. These are important phrases for students to learn, for throughout their careers they will want and need to state their opinions in a polite way. Each chapter has a section of notes "For" and "Against" a particular point in the lesson. Students can practice agreeing or disagreeing with each other, using the phrases listed on page sixty-two.

The book is packed with clever stories, ideas, and cartoons. It provides subjects about which students will want to express their opinions. What it lacks is a larger variety of conversational phrases, such as those used for requests, invitations, partings, and greetings; all of which need to be taught at the intermediate level. I think it is an excellent little book and should be used as one part of a speaking/listening class where the focus is on teaching opinion-giving and polite arguing skills. Since the book has been designed to be used in the United States, additional materials which teach other kinds of vocabulary that students need in their daily life (on health, supermarkets, insurance, cars, reservations), can easily be added to complete an intermediate speaking curriculum.

Included in the authors' introduction is an allusion to "coping with unresponsive groups of students." There is no need to worry about that—the topics are varied enough to get discussions started, even just by using the pictures, or by picking out one question in the "Opinion" or "Talk It Over" sections. Students will indeed want to talk over the topics in this book.

(Reprinted from the *Gulf TESOL Newsletter*)

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CHINA

Continued from page 2

are being taught. Future trends in literature are uncertain although it would appear that the study of literature is now considered important. For example, Professor Hsu's department (which she heads) has been re-named the Department of Foreign Languages and *Literature*. From this it would appear to follow that qualified teachers of English literature will eventually be needed. (In this connection, however, Thomas Scovel indicated that in his opinion the more urgent need is in the area of more utilitarian language learning needs.) Professor Hsu told the group that her university is considering as many as 5 years of training for its English teachers. She also noted that in her experience the Chinese students were highly motivated to learn English and did quite well in conversational skills after but one year's training. Another aspect of English language teaching in the PRC which she mentioned is the extensive use of radio to teach English. A further comment from Professor Hsu was that she had evidence that some of the short British Council teacher training programs were quite successful.

University of Hawaii

Three professors of English have thus far been invited to the PRC. In addition to Charles Blatchford who will be going to Lanchow in June, there are Yao Shen (recently retired) and Jason Alter who will be going in June to Peking.

A sub-committee of the university chaired by Ruth Crymes has written several proposals for English language teaching and teacher training which have been submitted to the appropriate officials in Peking for their consideration. Ruth Crymes and Ted Plaister travelled to the PRC in the Summer of 1978 where they established informal contact with Ms. Wang Yi-hua of the Peking School of Foreign Languages. The Dean of the School of Travel Industry Management and the President of the University of Hawaii recently returned from a visit to the PRC where they began negotiations for possible training of Chinese in various aspects of tourism. The university has also been contacted by Dr. Yoshi W. Bator representing Pan American World Airways (owners of Intercontinental Hotels) concerning English language teaching of Chinese personnel, especially those involved with the tourist industry.

Summary

There are many and diverse activities currently underway related to English language teaching and teacher training for and in the People's Republic of China.

Unavoidably perhaps, a certain amount of confusion exists both in the

PRC and in the United States concerning recruitment of personnel, establishment of programs, description of duties expected of American personnel, etc. In time, more efficient means of communication will undoubtedly be developed.

The Chinese have obviously placed a high priority on English teaching while at the same time insisting, rightly so, on high quality teaching. They have also indicated their concern for the teaching of the literature and culture of the English speaking peoples as well as the necessary English language skills.

A need exists for a clearinghouse in the United States to facilitate and expedite exchange/training programs to ensure that both parties, the PRC and the United States, mutually profit from ESOL programs which ultimately are implemented. President Spolsky appointed an ad hoc committee of three—Jane Alden, Richard Tucker, and James Alatis—to serve as an interim clearinghouse and coordinating committee for such information. TN 6/79

"I RESOLVE . . ."

By Richard Showstack
Tokyo

Often in job announcements for T.E.F.L. positions the words "overseas teaching experience preferred" appear. When seeing such advertisements, I can never figure out why teaching *overseas* would make a person a better teacher than teaching foreign students in the U.S. (especially since, in many cases, it is much easier to get a job teaching English overseas than to get an equivalent job in the States).

One kind of experience that I think *would* make a person a better teacher of English to foreign students, however, is the experience of *studying* a foreign language overseas.

That is exactly the kind of experience I am having this year. After graduating with a master's degree in T.E.F.L. and teaching in California for three years, I decided to take a year off to study Japanese in Japan. Now I am enrolled in a semi-intensive language program at a university in Tokyo.

This experience has been a tremendous one in opening my eyes to the way language learning looks from the students' point of view. I'm sure that, on the basis of this experience, I will be a much better teacher when I return to the U.S.

To be more specific, below are listed some thoughts I plan to post in a prominent place when I return to the States so that I can read them each day before entering the classroom to face my students.

I RESOLVE:

1) Not to get angry when my students occasionally come late to class;

or if they occasionally prefer to speak to each other in their native language instead of speaking to me in English; or if a student asks me a question the answer to which I have just finished giving; or if they occasionally decide to take a day off to explore the city instead of coming to class.

2) To be more careful to make sure they understand exactly what they are supposed to do when I give them an assignment.

3) Not to accept the fact that they've understood something (even if they say they have understood it) unless they can use it correctly.

4) To trust them more to work on their own without my interference.

5) To be more tolerant of different students' learning styles.

6) To listen more carefully to students' complaints and criticisms and suggestions and problems.

7) To be more sensitive to what level the students are on and what they need to learn.

8) To be more understanding of the problems of memorizing new vocabulary; of the problems of using newly-learned structures; and the problems of trying to practice the language outside of class.

9) To realize that there are times when it is very difficult to think or speak on cue in a foreign language; and also to realize that when living in a foreign country there are often many other important things on the students' minds besides studying the language.

10) Lastly, I resolve to try even harder as a teacher; to care even more for my students and to try to see what happens in the language class from their point of view so that I can provide them with the kinds of language-learning experiences they need.

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CALL FOR NOMINATIONS

With Boston barely behind us we now look forward to San Francisco. In this issue there is a call for papers and other presentations. It is time, too, to be thinking about people to serve TESOL in the positions of First and Second Vice President for next year; people who will represent TESOL around the world and people who can put together another successful convention. If you have someone in mind, please tell us. Send the name of your recommendation to Penny Alatis, Chair, TESOL Nominating Committee, c/o TESOL, 455 Nevils Bldg., Georgetown University, Washington DC 20057; or contact one of the members of the committee; Grace S. Holt, Univ. of Illinois, Chicago Circle; Adele Martinez, California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento; Don Mills, Long Beach City College; or Robert Rainsbury, New York University.

TESOL

NEWSLETTER

Vol. XIII No. 4

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

August 1979

ESL AND THE CULTURAL TRANSITION OF NON-ACADEMIC ADULTS

By Sharron Bassano
Santa Cruz Adult School

What is the role of an ESL teacher in the process of cultural transition? How do we, as teachers, best assist the immigrant from a Third World nation to succeed at the confusing and sometimes painful task of becoming an active participant in American society? I would like to share with you some thoughts on these two questions.

We realize that the powerlessness pervading the personality and lifestyle of many Third World immigrants can hinder their success in the cultural climate of the United States. Their formal education is minimal; their background is poverty. They carry with them an all-encompassing feeling of inadequacy as a result of never having had any significant control over their lives and destinies. They come from a rural setting with a psychological make-up that poorly equips them to deal with the urban environment they encounter in the United States.

Successful cultural transition for our immigrants is dependent upon their acquisition of specific linguistic skills as well as skills related to survival—the management of day-to-day transactions and tasks concerning such things as work, family, law, consumerism, and health care. Because their ability to acquire these essential skills has a direct bearing on the personal and social adaptation they must make, our classes may help them to maintain more stable self-identities in the face of "culture shock."

The role of an ESL teacher is three-fold. We first must transmit certain cognitive skills—listening comprehension, speaking, reading, writing, and spelling—all the aspects of communication that one needs to function in contemporary society. The emphasis on language learn-

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Already working on the San Francisco Convention are Penny Larson, Local Chair; Carol LeClair, TESOL Executive Asst.; Aaron Berman, in charge of Exhibits and Advertising; Jim Alatis, TESOL's Executive Secretary-Treasurer; Janet Fisher, Program Chair for the Convention; and Mark Clarke, the Associate Program Chair. (Photo by Simón Almendares)

CURRENT TRENDS IN ESL MATERIALS AND METHODOLOGIES: WHERE WE ARE AND WHERE WE ARE HEADED

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It is 1979. What is the place of English as a second language instruction in American Education today? What niche does ESL occupy in bilingual education since Title VII was funded fourteen years ago? What is the nature of ESL after thirteen years of funding under the Federal Adult Education Act? How are the developments in bilingual vocational education influencing what ESL is today? Most importantly, what makes teaching English as a Second Language unique from teaching English per se or teaching life-skills or teaching other foreign languages?

Introduction

ESL has gained a place as an essential element of educational programs of

all levels, serving hundreds of thousands of children, youth and adults who want or need to learn English in addition to their native languages. Four major types of programs incorporate instruction in English as a second language as a vital component:

- Academic programs, in bilingual education in elementary and secondary schools (K-12) and in colleges and universities;
- Pre-academic programs, in special institutes for foreign university students and in adult basic education/high school equivalency programs;
- General purpose programs (non-academic), in community centers, churches, community colleges, busi-

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ness and industry and child-care facilities; and

—Special purpose programs (i.e. vocational training) in high schools, technical institutions; junior colleges, industry, labor unions and community centers.

English as a Second Language has a place in these programs because it meets special human needs in a unique way. The characteristic features of ESL instruction are employed with an immense variety of language content. Of course, one goal of ESL is to teach the significant features of the English language, i.e. English sounds, words and arrangements of words in sentences. However, modern ESL instruction is much more than the study of the parts of the language. Language study must be subordinated to the instruction in the uses of English in its socio-cultural context. The skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking must be practiced in realistic situations, with appropriate body language, using culturally-acceptable messages and for specified communication functions.

Furthermore, the English of ESL is language *about something*. The language content may be the problem of mass transportation, the vocabulary of objects of the classroom, the difficulties of finding a good doctor, the ins and outs of asking someone out on a date, or the proof of a geometric theorem or any other real-life communication. Thus, the goal of ESL is to help form competent learners, consumers, workers and society members.

We have organized our discussion of recent trends in ESL around two general areas which continue to be of greatest interest and concern to most classroom teachers. The first of these two categories is materials, that is *what* is selected for study. The second is methodology or *how* what is selected is presented. We recognize that these categories are simplifications. We recognize too that they are not mutually exclusive and that some overlap is inevitable. Nevertheless, we believe these two distinctions are justifiable and provide a useful framework for viewing those trends which are and will be affecting what happens in our ESL classes everyday.

Materials

1. *The Notional/Functional Syllabus.* Probably the major influence on materials today is the development of the Notional/Functional syllabus. The essence of this concept is the priority assigned to the semantic content. The aim is to predict what types of meaning in

what precise contexts the learner will need to communicate. The ultimate objective being that learners will know not only *how* to express different meanings (i.e. grammatically) but *when* and *where* such meanings are appropriate. The development of materials is inextricably tied to learner needs arising from identified precise communication contexts.

Perhaps the concept is best viewed in contrast to the dominant influence upon ESL materials for the past twenty-five years, the structural syllabus. Let's look at how a typical structural syllabus is developed. Materials are based upon a linguistically ordered series of sentence patterns in which all of the teaching points are defined in grammatical terms and each new point follows logically from the one before. The major question for the materials developer is the linguistic selection and gradation of structural items. This selection and gradation is the same regardless of learner groups or learning situations. More than three-quarters of the ESL materials presently available are structurally developed.

Now let's look at a materials developer working on a notional/functional syllabus. First, the writer must decide specifically who is the target learner. Once this is determined at least six additional questions must be answered:

1. What *topics* will the learner need to discuss: entertainment and free time, life at home, personal identification?
2. What acts of *communication* will be encountered: information seeking, socializing, expressing emotion?
3. What *roles* will the learner have to play: student, spouse, employee?
4. What *concepts* will the learner require: temporal, spatial, evaluative?
5. What *setting* will affect learner use of the language: classroom, office, factory?
6. What *linguistic activities* will the learner engage in: listening, speaking, reading, writing?

Only when these questions are answered can materials be developed.

It is important to note that developers of structural materials have, on the whole, not found it necessary to define the target learner group except in terms of rather general factors—age, mother tongue, previous educational background. Thus, organized as they are "internally" in terms of abstract linguistic/grammatical logic most structure based materials tend to be much the same.

Notional/functional materials, on the other hand, deriving their learning units from the contextual use of language, must define the learners group in very special detail. Who the intended students are and in what precise circumstances their English will be used are basic considerations. It follows then that

notional/functional syllabuses will differ markedly one from another, designed as they are to serve different groups, with different needs resulting in different selections from the language code.

Perhaps the most substantial effort at implementation of the N-F approach has been *Systems Development in Adult Language Learning* by J. Van Eck in 1976. Two additional discussions of this approach are available, *Notional Syllabuses* by D. A. Wilkins and *Teaching Language as Communication* by H. G. Widdowson.

2. *English for Special Purposes.* In a way, the second trend we want to look at may be considered an extension of the above. English for Special Purposes has had a major effect on ESL materials. Of all the trends we will discuss in this article, ESP has resulted in the greatest number of actual texts available for classroom use. Acquiring a total language system is a long term process. However, it is often not necessary to have control of the total language in order to function within a specific context. The language of science and technology, business and industry has distinctive features. These features can be identified, isolated and taught without the need for the learner to master the complete language. Such language learning materials do not take mastery of the language as their goal. They will not equip the learner to function in any context, although they will certainly contribute to the ultimate achievement of both goals. What ESP materials will do is give the learner the language competencies needed to function within the rather narrow limits of a specialized field such as accounting, engineering, banking, welding or firefighting.

Within a special field, materials will emphasize vocabulary structures and whatever language performance modes are principally needed to perform the specific skill. Materials for waiters and pilots, for example, might emphasize reading.

Within the broad area of ESP three major subgroupings emerge. The first, English for Science and Technology or EST has by far the largest corpus of materials available. EST materials for chemists, biologists, doctors, dentists, nurses, even for petroleum engineers, abound. The second large subgroup is English for Business. Available are special second language materials for training secretaries, bookkeepers, accountants, bankers and travel agents. Lastly, the subgroup which has the least availability of materials, but the greatest probability of future growth, vocational ESL or VESL. There are some few syllabuses developed, most not commercially available, coming as they do from special non-commercial educational

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projects. Among the existing titles are *ESL/Machine Tool Operation*, *ESL/Maid Service Training*, *ESL/Custodial Assistant* and *ESL/Automotive Mechanic*. All were developed by Gateway Technical Institute, Kenosha, Wisconsin, in cooperation with the Wisconsin Board of Vocational, Technical and Adult Education. Modules for a prototype *Food Services-Syllabus* have been developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Virginia. It is expected that these materials will soon be commercially available.

3. *Competency-Based ESL*. Competency based education is the third area having impact on our materials. Alternately referred to as life-coping or performance skills, the original impact was in adult education. Since then the influence has widened. Functional competency has become a factor across all of education. CBE materials are organized around content and skill areas. The content areas usually include consumer affairs, health, government and law, occupational knowledge and community resources. The skill areas are listening, speaking, reading, writing, computation, problem solving and interpersonal relations.

In CB-ESL materials language per se is secondary to the successful completion of life-relevant competencies. Thus, what language forms you use are not critical as long as the desired result is accomplished. For example, you must be able to explain why you went through that red light to the policeman who has just stopped you. So long as you are able to do this, correct language form is *not* the *measure of success*. Language acquisition is not neglected, merely relegated to a less critical place.

CBE materials are based on the premise that the end of learning is performance, is measurable and that successful learning is directly related to the individual's ability to function in society at large.

Thus each learning unit in a CB-ESL module includes stated measurable performance objectives, pre-assessment of learner competencies in content and skill areas, alternate teaching/learning resources and strategies and post-assessment stated in terms of performance objectives.

Examples of CB-ESL materials are *Label (Library of Adult Basic Education LAPS)*, developed under a grant for the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare by Mary Mulvey, Adult Education Department, Providence Public Schools, Providence, Rhode Island, published by PAR Incorporated and *English for Living*, the State University of New York

(SUNY), Albany, New York.

4. *Exposure to Uncontrolled Language*. Finally, a trend which has been growing in importance for the last ten years has been strengthened by the advent of N/F syllabuses and CB-ESL. In the ESL class, use of materials specially written for limited English speakers continues. However, there is greatly increased use of a variety of materials produced for and by native speakers of English. More and more, newspapers, magazines, films, video tapes intended for the native speaker are finding their way into the ESL classroom. This trend, the most widespread and exciting we have yet looked at, is also perhaps the one which makes the greatest demands upon the training and competency of the ESL teacher.

Methodologies

Accompanying these trends in ESL curriculum materials are developments (in various stages of completion) in the methodologies of English as a Second Language. In the first place, ESL is eclectic methodology. Having encountered such a variety of learners and learning styles, all competent ESL teachers know that no single method of teaching—such as audio-lingual or grammar-translation—is adequate for real-life teaching and learning to take place. In addition to this experientially-based eclecticism in ESL teaching, there are certain new directions in methodology which could be linked to trends both new and old in humanistic psychology, communication and the rest of education.

Two major methodological currents are discernable:

1. *Active student participation and group dynamics*. Any ESL teacher must provide students with samplings of natural language, rules and hints about the language, adequate practice and feedback on their performance. But the teacher must also maximize the opportunity that students have to actively utilize their English. No longer does it suffice that students sit and learn. Language learning demands active involvement by the learner. ESL is no exception to this trend. Certain activities (such as games, puzzles, contests, role plays and dramatizations) and classroom procedures (such as individualization) have been incorporated into modern ESL instruction at all levels and for all ages to facilitate greater individual student participation and more efficient learning.

Furthermore, more and more ESL teachers manipulate the classroom setting itself in order to take advantage of the dynamics of group interaction in the class. The teacher who can arrange for small groups of students to work to-

gether for part of the class time without teacher supervision possesses a basic classroom management skill (and a necessary one for multilevel classes!). That teacher also has the ability to create a classroom climate conducive to greater cooperation among students and subsequently, greater learning. It has been found, for example, that peer-correction of student errors is often more effective than teacher correction. Moreover, group interaction, such as that which goes on during simulation gaming and role plays in the classroom, fosters the transfer of skills practiced in class to situations outside the ESL classroom.

2. *Going deeper, and the whole learner*. Critics of traditional ESL (and education in general) have pointed out that most school teaching and learning is ineffective because it only deals with the "surface." Even the most "active" classroom activity involves the student's ears, eyes, vocal apparatus, hands and little else. This realization has prompted a second major trend in ESL, to the end that teaching be more affective and that learning occupy a significant place in the psychology of the learner than before. Some questions and answers along these lines are:

- What about involving the student's whole body? Students act out commands such as "Walk to the door and pretend that you are locked in," in the Total Physical Response method. Vocational ESL includes basic hands-on contact with the tools of trade to be acquired.
- What about the student's goals, hopes and values? Values clarification techniques have become a part of many ESL classes in secondary and adult education. Personal subjects of conversation are encouraged in the late Charles Curran's Community Language Learning mode. Simulation gaming demands learner decisions on questions of right and wrong, better and worse.
- What about the student's insecurity? Community Language Learning seeks to guide the student from "infancy" to "adulthood" in his "new language self." Tutorial approaches to composition in ESL are based on student-initiated lists of topics to write about.
- What about the student's subconscious resistance? The power of suggestion and a relaxed atmosphere assist the student in the Suggestopedia method.
- What about the student's self-concept? Students in Silent Way lessons feel that they have learned something through their own power.

The popularity of these specialized methods for teaching ESL demonstrates a broad, general trend: the concern for

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NATIVE AMERICANS: WHAT NOT TO TEACH ABOUT THEM

June Sark Heinrich

June Sark Heinrich recently directed an alternative school for Native American children in Chicago. Her experiences there revealed many inadequacies in the way teachers present the history and heritage of Native peoples in the classroom. She offers the following pointers to aid elementary school teachers in correcting the most common errors made in presenting Native American subject matter.

Don't use alphabet cards that say A is for apple, B is for ball, and I is for Indian.

The matter may *seem* to be a trivial one, but if you want your students to develop respect for Native Americans, don't start them out in kindergarten equating Indians with *things* like apples and balls. Other short "i" words (ice, ink or ivory) could be used, so stay away from I-is-for-Indian in your alphabet teaching.

Don't talk about Indians as though they belong to the past.

Books and filmstrips often have titles like "How the Indians lived," as though there aren't any living today. The fact is that about 800,000 Native Americans live in what is now the United States, many on reservations and many in cities and towns. They are in all kinds of neighborhoods and schools and are in all walks of life. Too many Native Americans live in conditions of poverty and powerlessness, but they are very much a part of the modern world. If the people who write books and filmstrips mean "How (particular groups of) Native Americans Lived Long Ago," then they should say so.

Don't talk about "them" and "us."

A "them" and "us" approach reflects extreme insensitivity, as well as a misconception of historical facts. "They" are more truly "us" than anyone else. Native peoples are the original Americans and are the only indigenous Americans in the sense that all of their ancestors were born on this land. Everybody else in this country came from some other place originally.

Don't lump all Native Americans together.

There were no "Indians" before the Europeans came to America—that is, no peoples called themselves "Indians." They are Navajo or Seminole or Menominee, etc. The hundreds of Native groups scattered throughout the U.S. are separate peoples, separate nations. They have separate languages and cultures and

names. Native Americans of one nation were and are as different from Native Americans of another nation as Italians are from Swedes, Hungarians from the Irish or the English from the Spanish. When referring to and teaching about Native Americans, use the word "Indian"—or even "Native American"—as little as possible. Don't "study the Indians." Study the Hopi, the Sioux, the Nisqually, or the Apache.

Don't expect Native Americans to look like Hollywood movie "Indians."

Some Native Americans tell a story about a white "American" woman who visited a reservation. She stopped and stared at a young man, then said to him, "Are you a real Indian? You don't look Indian."

Whatever it is that people expect Native Americans to look like, many do not fit those images. Since they come from different nations, their physical features, body structure and skin colors vary a great deal—and none has red skin. Of course, Native and non-Native Americans have intermarried so that many Native Americans today have European, African or other ancestry. Therefore, don't expect all Native Americans to look alike, any more than all Europeans look alike.

Don't let TV stereotypes go unchallenged.

Unfortunately for both Native and non-Native American children, TV programs still show the savage warrior or occasionally the noble savage stereotypes. Discuss with children the TV programs they watch. Help them understand the meaning of the word "stereotype." Help them understand that, from the Native American point of view, Columbus and other Europeans who came to this land were invaders. Even so, Native Americans originally welcomed and helped the European settlers. When they fought, they were no more "savage" than the Europeans and were often less so. Help children understand that atrocities are a part of *any* war. In fact, war itself is atrocious. At least, the Native Americans were defending land they had lived on for thousands of years. If Native Americans were not "savage warriors," neither were they "noble savages." They were no more nor less noble than the rest of humanity.

Another common stereotype is the portrayal of the "Indian" as a person of few words, mostly "ugh." The fact is that early European settlers were aware of and commented specifically on the brilliance of Native American oratory and the beauty of their languages.

Stereotypes are sneaky. They influence the way we talk and live and play, sometimes without our knowing it. Don't say to your students, "You act like a bunch

of wild Indians." Don't encourage or even allow children to play "cowboys and Indians." Be sensitive to stereotypes in everything you say and do.

Don't let students get the impression that a few "brave" Europeans defeated millions of "Indian savages" in battle.

How could a few Europeans take away the land of Native Americans and kill off millions of them? This did not all happen in battle. Historians tell us that considering the number of people involved in the "Indian" wars, the number actually killed on both sides was small. What really defeated Native Americans were the diseases brought to this continent by the Europeans. Since Native Americans had never been exposed to smallpox, measles, tuberculosis, syphilis and other diseases that plagued the Old World, they had no immunity and were, thus, ravaged. Between 1492 and 1910, the Native population in the U.S. area declined to about 200,000. Help your students understand that it was germs and disease, not Europeans' "superior" brains and bravery, that defeated the Native peoples.

Don't teach that Native Americans are just like other ethnic and racial minorities.

Ethnic and racial groups in the U.S. share in common discrimination, unemployment, poverty, poor education, etc. But they are *not* all alike. The problems these groups encounter are not all the same, nor are their solutions. Perhaps the biggest difference between Native Americans and other U.S. minorities is that Native peoples didn't come from some other land. This land has always been their home.

Although dispossessed of most of their land, Native peoples didn't lose all of it. According to U.S. law, Native American reservations are nations within the United States. U.S. government and business interests persist in trying to take away Native land—especially land containing oil or other valuable resources. However, the fact is that Native Americans—by treaty rights—own their own lands. No other minority within the United States is in a similar legal position. Native peoples view themselves as separate nations within a nation. And though often ignored and/or violated, U.S. laws and treaties, officially endorsed by U.S. presidents and the Congress, attest to those claims.

Don't assume that Native American children are well acquainted with their heritage.

If you have Native American children in your class, you may expect that they will be good resource persons for your "unit on Indians." Today, it is not un-

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MIX-LEVEL GROUPS IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

Michael Miner
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On different occasions, it becomes necessary to establish classes which actually consist of students who have varying levels of English competency. Frequently one has to choose whether to offer such a class, overfill existing classes, or send students away with no English instruction at all. Once the humane decision to open a mixed section has been made, the question arises of how to organize time so that all students are occupied with work which challenges and expands their abilities.

The first task is to establish different activity groups. Those who are able to comprehend speech and write relatively quickly comprise one group; those who comprehend and speak relatively well comprise another. Those who comprehend and speak but much more slowly comprise a third group.

In the beginning sessions, the most basic group is given the task of responding to short answer questions. Typical examples are: What is your name? country of origin? major? How do you get to school? How large is your family? etc.

As they answer these questions, the more advanced oral/aural group is asked questions about the presentations of the others: Where does _____ live? What students are from _____? How did _____ say he got to school? Their answers are checked against the first group and against other listeners.

The writing group, while the listening and speaking groups interact with each other, is required to keep notes on the class proceedings, much in the manner of a recording secretary at a meeting. Their reports and dialogs are read aloud and checked against the speakers and listeners.

The immediate outcome of this process is multiple: 1.) The students get to know each other. 2.) They actualize the importance of clear pronunciation and attentive listening, as they often have to repeat and listen twice or more in order to fully communicate. 3.) They acquire practice in (or an introduction to) note-taking skills. 4.) They establish the fact that the classroom is a performing environment, not a passive one. 5.) They accept students as well as the teacher as a source of language study by becoming part of their own subject matter.

As the semester progresses and written assignments are brought in, papers read aloud substitute for question and answer sessions, and the most advanced group reads its material, while the intermediate group moves to the activity of writing down its observations rather than

merely reporting orally, while the third group is questioned on the content of the papers. Areas of misunderstanding can be discussed as structured and organizational issues, with careful guidance from the teacher.

By the end of the semester, the majority of students can be moved by this method to a point where their abilities have grown substantially, without suffering from under—or over-teaching any of the groups involved.

Needless to say a diary of activities is necessary to keep track of student groupings, which do fluctuate as individual students move from one group to another. Overall, though, administration of this format is quite simple in proportion to the benefit it yields.

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the student as a person with emotions, thoughts, problems and potentialities. The "whole learner" methodology, most clearly articulated by Earl W. Stevick of the Foreign Service Institute, has become manifest in changes in classroom climate, where the ESL teacher's role has become more and more like that of a facilitator, helper or counselor. Depending on the classroom, students are encouraged (allowed in some cases) to select the topic and content of discussion, the actual sentences of drills and dialogs, the type of activity they want to use to practice the lesson content, the seating arrangement or whether the teacher should provide a model or correct the student's utterances. Indeed, the teacher is in the position of being a learner in every classroom at some time or another. This realization has been increasingly translated into classroom practice.

These major trends in ESL methodologies have occasionally been accompanied by specifically developed materials. For example, for use with a Counseling-Learning approach, David Blot and Phyllis Berman Sher have written *Getting Into It . . . An Unfinished Book*, a collection of passages focusing on the typical feelings and situations encountered by adult immigrants learning ESL. The increase in publication of games, simulations and audio-visuals bears further witness to certain trends in methods. However, the new ways of teaching do not necessarily demand new materials. Suggestopedia, for instance, can use existing curriculum materials (dialogs, drills, readings, vocabulary-lists) in its unique method. Indeed, the introduction of materials for native speakers and specially written

competency-based curricula in ESL has had, in and of itself, a profound effect on methodology.

Summary

The developments in ESL that we have outlined here demonstrate the vitality that exists in the field of ESL today. The interplay of methods and materials, the interaction between students and teacher, the incorporation of life and language study and the relations between teaching and learning: all of these elements of instruction for the limited English speaking are complex and pose a challenge to practitioners. By the evidence of the growth of these trends, teachers are attempting to meet this challenge.

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likely that such children will be proud of being Native American. Some may participate in traditional activities of their cultures. In general, however, Native American children have much in common with other children in the U.S. in that they know far more about TV programs than about their own national ways of life. They eat junk food and want all of the things most children in our society want. If lost in a forest, they would not necessarily be able to manage any better than other children would. Like other children in the U.S., Native American children need to be taught about their heritage which, in a very real sense, is the heritage of everybody living in the U.S. today.

Don't let students think that Native ways of life have no meaning today.

Native arts have long commanded worldwide interest and admiration. But far more important for human and ecological survival are Native American philosophies of life. Respect for the land; love of every form of life, human and non-human; harmony between humans and nature rather than conquest and destruction of nature—these are vital characteristics of Native ways of life. All peoples in the U.S. can and must learn to live in harmony with the natural world, and that is one of the most significant lessons you should teach your students about "the Indians."

Reprinted from the *Bulletin* of the Council on Interracial Books for Children, published 8 times a year (\$10 for individuals, \$15 for libraries and schools). The Council also operates the Racism and Sexism Resource Center for Educators and has a free catalog of anti-racist, anti-sexist teaching materials. Write to the Council at 1841 Broadway, New York, NY 10023.

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SUGGESTION AND EDUCATION

By Myrna Lynn Hammerman
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In January 1979, two papers were presented on suggestion and education at the TEX-TESOL-IV convention in Houston, Texas. Mary L. Lindeman discussed the historical precedent of Suggestopedia and Valdemar Phoenix investigated the technique. Both Lindeman and Phoenix are affiliated with the Language and Culture Center at the University of Houston. The following is a synopsis of the two presentations and their conclusions.

In her paper, "Suggestion in Education: The Historical Path of Suggestopedia", Mary L. Lindeman points out that it is safe to assume that historically methods of education have used some form of suggestion, be it good or bad. She chooses to explore those pedagogical methods and the research connected with them that specifically utilize the special technique of suggestion.

One of the earliest forms of organized education were the yogic schools that date back 3,000 years and still are in existence today. They produced professional memorizers of sacred Indian literature by means of yoga which was developed as a method of mental enrichment for religious purposes. Western culture has had difficulty understanding Indian mysticism and has not been permitted familiarity with the yogic mental techniques due to their private religious nature. As a result, Western scientists have not been able to establish conclusive evidence for or against the notion that yoga improves intellectual faculties. Nevertheless, super-memory feats have been observed by Westerners in India.

The course of history in Western education over the past two thousand years has been based on the faculties of logic and reason in which education was considered hard work and reason was the tool by which the mind became educated. Suggestion, although always implicitly present, was neglected in historical Western pedagogy. It was by accident that suggestion found its place in official Western history with the introduction of hypnotism to medicine in the eighteenth century by a Viennese doctor named Mesmer.

The medical history of hypnotism in the West is thoroughly outlined by Lindeman in her presentation. It traces a rocky road fraught with lack of understanding, wariness on the part of the public, and fear of the occult. But along the way there have been enlightened scholars who have recognized the value of hypnotic techniques in the educational setting.

The father of modern hypnotism, a French physician named Liébeault who practiced in the last half of the nineteenth century, recognized hypnotism as a

valuable educational tool to be used with delinquent children. In 1935, Clark L. Hull of Yale, extended the interest in hypnotism to the study of psychology in which he investigated susceptibility to hypnotism, the posthypnotic suggestion, learning in hypnotism, and hypnotic amnesia. It took Emile Coué, a Frenchman with a working knowledge of hypnotic technique, to discover that light positive suggestion was more effective than a state of deep hypnotic trance. It wasn't until the twentieth century that his intuitive insights were verified by psychological and educational research.

As early as 1890 articles on research relating to suggestibility in children may be found in books and professional journals. Since that time there have appeared numerous studies, scrupulously detailed by Lindeman, to attest to the positive contribution that light hypnotic technique has to offer to education. Most recently Martin Aster and Stanley Krippner have been strong advocates of educational hypnotism. Krippner, at the Kent State University Child Study Center, used hypnotism as an aid to better study habits, increase of concentration, reduction of test anxiety, increase of motivation, and help in special language skills. Ralph Alan Dale (1972) listed nine uses of hypnotism in education. Jampolsky (1970) reported the effective use of hypnotism in special education with learning disabled children. In the 1970's there has materialized in the West a growing acceptance of the principles of suggestion in the classroom and significant research is being conducted at a number of leading universities in the U.S.

In the 1970's Dr. Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist and yogi, developed Suggestopedia, a new method of foreign language teaching based on suggestion and subliminal stimuli gleaned from his experience with hypnotism in the West and his observations of a yogi lawyer's ability to perform computer-like memorizations. Lindeman gives a thorough description of the method as she understands it using what information is available to us at this time. (see Bancroft 1976)

Valdemar Phoenix in his presentation, "Suggestion and Creative Potential", discusses the theory of suggestion as it is understood by contemporary philosophy and psychology and the application of suggestion as a teaching/learning tool—both in relation to how Lozanov's method complies with what is known of suggestion.

According to Phoenix there are two minds, the conscious mind that makes decisions, reasons, judges, and analyzes, and the subconscious mind that controls and creates—the synthesizer of all the

information fed into it through the conscious mind and through all sensory and non-sensory channels. An important concept to understanding Suggestopedia is the realization that it is not only the thought image that gets passed into the subconscious, but also the emotional state or feeling that the thought evokes, and both of these are stored together in the subconscious memory. Once a person being logical or true (whether it is true or not) he passes it into the subconscious along with the emotional content that it evokes. All beliefs start out as direct or indirect suggestions that have been accepted by the individual and then become externalized as a reality in the person's life. There is more opposition to direct suggestion than to indirect suggestion. Indirect suggestion is directed towards the subconscious mind and therefore is less subject to conscious interference and resistance. Lozanov uses positive suggestion to overcome previous beliefs. He suggests a new positive idea to replace the old negative belief. He begins training with brief re-suggestion sessions that the teacher himself must experience in order to be able to conduct.

The authority of the teacher is very important to the practice of Suggestopedia. The students must have total respect for the teacher in order to accept the suggestions offered by the teacher at a deep level. This respect comes from the teaching institution as a whole, to the methods employed, to the credentials of the teacher. Suggestology attempts to recapture the learning inquisitiveness and spontaneity of childhood via a process termed "Infantilization" by Lozanov. It is believed that a Parent-Child attitude between teacher and student will foster creativeness thereby enhancing the ability to learn.

Suggestopedia contains a concept entitled double-planeness which refers to "... a form of communication which accesses both the left hemisphere of the brain, which is generally endowed with what we've been calling the conscious functions of the mind; and the right hemisphere, which generally houses the subconscious." (Phoenix, 1979:13) Phoenix discusses this concept in relation to maintaining the on-going suggestion of a vast, and creative learning potential and presenting actual material in a 'suggestive' manner. He especially notes that all communication is not verbal and that a strong sense of legitimacy (decor of room, teacher's personality, etc.) is a form of non-verbal suggestion that is an important influence on the student's ability to learn. It is essential, according to this method, that the teacher present the material in a controlled, knowledgeable way so as not to inadvertently reinforce a student's learned limitations.

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QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

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teaching less than six years. While one might be tempted to conclude that teachers of adult ESL students because they are part-time and new to the field might be of lower quality than other teachers, this survey indicates that this is not the case: 53.0% have Master's Degrees (about 25% of these are in ESL or in a closely allied field) and only 5.8% indicated that they had had no training.

Most teachers (66.7%) taught in traditional school settings. Most (68.9%) taught fewer than 15 hours per week and had classes of between ten and twenty students in size. Although there has been a national priority for bilingual adult education classes for several years, only 24% indicated that their program had any bilingual services. In this sample, fewer than half the teachers belonged to any professional organization.

The responses indicated that most teachers (72.3%) lived in a city or near one and that they were within one hour of a college offering ESL training (74.6%).

It is interesting to take a moment and compare some of the data stated above with the data received from the sample of teachers of adults taken in the 1964-6 TENES Survey. We can see that teachers of adult ESL students are, in general, becoming better educated, more experienced, and more interested in joining professional organizations. After many years of encouragement by teachers, class sizes are becoming smaller, too.

As for the heart of the survey, when the teachers were asked which areas of training they felt would be most important for them, over 70% indicated ESL methods and ESL materials would be most important for them. There was no clear preference between the content areas: individualized instruction, classroom management, literacy and reading and culture were only slightly preferred over vocational ESL, testing and placement and issues in bilingual education, however, was generally thought to be of low importance.

All types of teachers of ESL to adult students felt that learning more about methods of teaching ESL was important. This interest does not seem to be diminished by some training in that area. One could conclude that training in this area is not only a matter of transmitting information about useful techniques but also a matter of helping trainees to understand underlying principles and providing opportunities for guided practice in applying this knowledge, that methods cannot be "done" in a short time.

All types of teachers of ESL to adults indicated a great interest in learning more about materials—their analysis and

utilization. Few teachers have had training in this area. Of those who have had some exposure to materials, their interest remains high in learning more. Materials were rated slightly lower than methods, but both were clearly preferred over the other options offered.

A moderate interest was shown by the respondents in learning more about structure (American English grammar). While it is quite possible that some respondents could have confused classes they have had in the past on the grammar of English with information on how non-natives can be helped to view English, full-time teachers seem to have a greater interest in this area than part-time teachers. If I may "editorialize" for a moment, this is the area that I have seen as needing greatest training in teachers of adult ESL students. However, it is the area in which teachers are least willing to admit needs.

Respondents were most interested in meeting together in workshop or institute settings. Suggestions of training that could be taken at home were overwhelmingly rejected. College courses were the second most attractive delivery system.

In conclusion, we can say that teachers are generally interested in learning those things that will directly affect and benefit their present teaching needs. Those content areas which are perceived to be theoretical are less desired. Respondents seem to be willing to travel to receive training and seem to prefer social situations rather than those training models which suggest that they learn alone.

This survey indicates that teachers are interested in learning more and are enthusiastic about devoting themselves to improving their knowledge of the field and their ability to teach even though ESL may not be their primary area of employment.

Jean Bodman
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SUGGESTION AND EDUCATION

Continued from page 7

Therefore, double-planeness also refers to how the teacher behaves in relation to the student when the student is learning. The teacher must be able to reach both hemispheres of the brain (the conscious and the subconscious) as well as all of the students in the class.

According to Phoenix, students have their own preferred input channel or combination of channels and also a preferred representational system (auditory, visual, and kinesthetic) for learning, as do teachers. It is essential for anyone who uses suggestion as a teaching method to know the specific techniques for determining a person's preferred input channel and representational system and to be able to present material in a

manner that is agreeable to the student. In other words, the teacher must train himself to be fluent in communication in all channels (not only in his own preferred channels) in a congruent fashion thereby expanding his own potential as well as that of the student. Phoenix and Lindeman are at present working on the development of specific techniques for congruent teaching.

Two examples from the techniques of Suggestopedia, intonational-rhythmic readings of material and concert listening are good ways of directly communicating with the subconscious right brain. These techniques when used correctly place the student in a super-suggestive, relaxed state and allow him to subconsciously absorb what is being taught while the logical left hemisphere is being distracted by auditory input (music).

Phoenix concludes by saying that specific methodologies are not as crucial to the learning situation as the rapport established between the teacher and student. It is in the total behavior of the teacher, on a personality level, and on conscious and subconscious planes, wherein lies the value of the suggestive approach.

Both Lindeman and Phoenix point out that the success of the conscious and effective use of suggestion in education depends on the creativity and sensitivity of the individual teacher. Lindeman delineates some of the benefits derived from this method as relaxation for learning purposes, creating a good mind set for being a student, developing the use of the subconscious to enhance learning, change of student attitude from negative to positive, increased motivation, and overcoming emotional blocks. In conclusion she says that "In education suggestion is a force so powerful, but so basic, that it goes unnoticed. Those educators who are aware of its potential and sensitive to its use will be in a position to enhance every teaching activity, directly and indirectly."

Editor's Note: Both of these articles reported here contain excellent bibliographies. An even more complete bibliography on suggestion and hypnosis can be found in Hammerman's excellent M.A. Thesis "Hypnosis and Language Learning", Northeastern Illinois University, January 1979.

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RECOMMENDING OUTSIDE READING

By Lise Winer

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In addition to reading work done in class, everyone agrees that it is important to help students develop the habit of reading in English on their own. Both as a teacher and a student, I have found this easier said than done. On the premise that students will read only what they really like, it is therefore important to find out as much as possible about individual preferences before making a recommendation.

One's own personal experiences can be a guide. For example, in learning French, I found that although I am a voracious reader in English, the mere sight of a printed page in French was completely overwhelming. The only reading I could face was very simple, illustrated children's books with no more than one line of print per page. Finally, attracted by the brightly coloured illustrations and comic book format of *Tin-Tin*, I found something I could read and re-read endlessly. I enjoyed following my favourite characters through the series, sometimes reading different parts aloud. Now I recommend the English translations to ESL students looking for similar reading material, even though *Tin-Tin* does not have the same cultural significance in English. (*Asterix* is similar, but has foreign accents and puns which make it more difficult.)

When a student asks for suggestions about reading material, it is important to keep an open mind and follow the student's lead. Some questions about genre are fairly straightforward: mystery, fairy tale, romance, classic or popular fiction, science fiction (those from the 1950's tend to be easier to read than more modern ones), biography, history, psychology, science, mechanics. . . . Some additional components of personal taste might include the following. Do you prefer short stories, articles, magazines, or books? What historical period do you prefer—past, present, future? Do you want to have or avoid dialogue, description, action or characterization? How many and what kind of pictures do you like? (Another physical aspect of a book can be important also; a book with small pages or large type size may give the impression of making more rapid progress.)

Do you prefer happy or sad endings? If you like children's books, do you want culturally important or just simple ones? (But be careful, as many books for younger English children include complex structures difficult for beginning ESL students.) What locale do you prefer? (Students may like reading about their new country, if immigrants, or may have a particular interest in another for-

eign country. Many students like reading about their own country, in English; they may disagree with the author's viewpoint, providing a basis for individual or class discussion.)

Are there books you have enjoyed reading in your first language, whether they were originally written in English or not, and would like to re-read in English? (Don't worry too much about "losing in translation", as long as the English is reasonable.) Do you want books that have been especially written or simplified for ESL students? (Students often reject ESL readers on the grounds that they look childish, or are not "real" English. As a compromise, you might recommend books like the Pendulum Press comic-strip format series of classic English novels simplified for remedial English L, students, or other simplified or "condensed" books.)

For example, a request for a sad love story set in India led to Kamala Markandaya's *Nectar in a Sieve*, and one for a realistic picture of Indian life, R. K. Narayan's *The Financial Expert*. (In these cases, I was a linguistic resource, but most of the discussion occurred between the French Canadian student who was reading the books, and a Hindi-speaking fellow classmate.) A French student who ~~was~~ enjoyed reading *Maigret* in English, even though he already knew the solution! If you don't happen to know of a book that fits the particular bill, a request framed in such specific terms is likely to get good results from a librarian or bookseller.

In spite of my own personal preferences, I don't overlook those popular books—Harlequin Romances (Mills and Boon in the British Commonwealth fills a similar slot.) They are cheap—usually available secondhand—and are avidly read by many native English-speakers. In one Montreal high school, Chinese and Greek girls in an English language school devoured these books alongside their Anglophone classmates; I have overheard several spontaneous discussions on the merits of various novels, and reactions to the male-female images presented in these books. Naturally, I try to encourage a branching out, or vocabulary and style will be severely limited, but I don't push.

In general, I try not to recommend material that I haven't read or at least skimmed myself, and books whose cultural content might be difficult to understand without help, unless the student is particularly keen. Most nineteenth century novels are better avoided for reasons of sentence complexity, as well as books like *Treasure Island* (except in simplified versions) because of dialectal or archaic vocabulary. I also discourage some modern books which are extremely popular, including the *Destroyer* series and movie spin-offs like *Close Encoun-*

ters, which are written so badly that they are difficult for ESL students to read.

You may want to set exercises or book reports for students' individual reading, or discuss it with them. Keep in mind that some students will feel uncomfortable unless they look up every new word, and some will plough ahead as long as they can follow the story line; either way, the student is reading at his or her most comfortable pace. Students may sometimes choose books you feel are too difficult, but a strong interest and motivation may prove as important as linguistic ability. It is of course difficult not to object to "unsuitable" material, but short of pointing out that an English vocabulary based, say, on superhero comic books is rather limited, attracting students with books they find interesting is preferable to discouraging reading altogether. You might try sharing with the class something you yourself like to read; students themselves may eventually recommend books they have read to each other—and bring something new and enjoyable to your attention too.

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AN EDITOR'S JOB

Getting out a journal (read, *Newsletter*) is no picnic.

The Editor is much misunderstood.

If we print jokes people say we are silly.

If we don't they say we are too serious.

If we clip things from other magazines, we are too lazy to write them ourselves.

If we don't we are stuck on our own stuff.

If we don't print every word of all contributions, we don't appreciate genius.

If we do print them the pages are filled with junk.

If we make a change in the other fellow's write-up, we are too critical.

If we don't we are blamed for poor editing.

If we are usually in the office, we should get out more often.

If we are out when you call, we're not on the job.

If we are too busy for casual talk, our job has gone to our head.

If we engage in casual talk, that's all we have to do.

If we can't give you an immediate answer, we are incompetent.

If we can give you an immediate answer, we don't think things through.

If we have a strong opinion, we are bull headed.

If we try to see both sides of a question, we are pussy-footing.

Some reader will say we swiped this from some other journal.

We did.

Reprinted from *Contemporary Education*, Vol. 49, No. 4, Summer 1978, p. 196.

OH, WHAT'S THE USE?

By Lois Morton

Just consider the ways in which *use* can
be used,
And you really will wind up completely
confused!

What did you *use to do* in the old days?
Do you find that it's hard to *get used to*
new ways?

Are you *used to* this crowded, polluted
big city?

Did you *use to live* in a town that was
pretty?

There are lots of new things that it's
hard to *get used to*,

(And some never do— they'll *use* any
excuse to

keep doing the things that they once
used to do.

But sometimes old habits must make
way for new.)

You can *get used to* cooking, if no-one
cooks for you,

And *get used to* listening to teachers
who bore you;

If you *used to* sleep half the morning
away,

Can you *get used to* getting up early
each day?

Are you quite *used to* speaking a lan-
guage that's foreign?

Can you *get used to* news from the
places there's war in?

(They say man can *use* his wide-ranging
potential

to get used to anything, if it's essential.)
I used to go dancing, and stay up all
night.

If I tried it now, I'd be "out like a
light."

It's *useless* to try waiting up for the sun,
but still, I remember, *it used to be* fun.

I did not use to cook— no, I just
couldn't do it,

Until *I got used to it*— now, nothing
to it!

My children dislike eating foods *they're*
not used to.

It's no use to force them— they'll
simply refuse to.

I used to hate kidneys, but tastes often
change.

I'm so used to them now, that I don't
find them strange.

Didn't you use to believe there were
ghosts?

Didn't you use to believe bullies' boasts?
When you were a child, *did you use to*
believe

That parents were perfect, and didn't
deceive?

(At times we've all had *to get used to*
the thought

that lots of things weren't true, that we
were taught.)

The old days were different, you've got
to admit.

What you *used to be used to* may no
longer fit.

Another new thing that is downright
confusing

is all the machines we must *get used to*
using,

Like electric brooms which *are used to*
sweep floors,

and electric eyes, that *are used to* work
doors,

and machines that *are used to* wash
dishes and clothes;

it's *useful* to know how *to use* all of
those.

There are so many ways to use *use*, *used*
and *used to*,

It seems like a puzzle there aren't any
clues to!

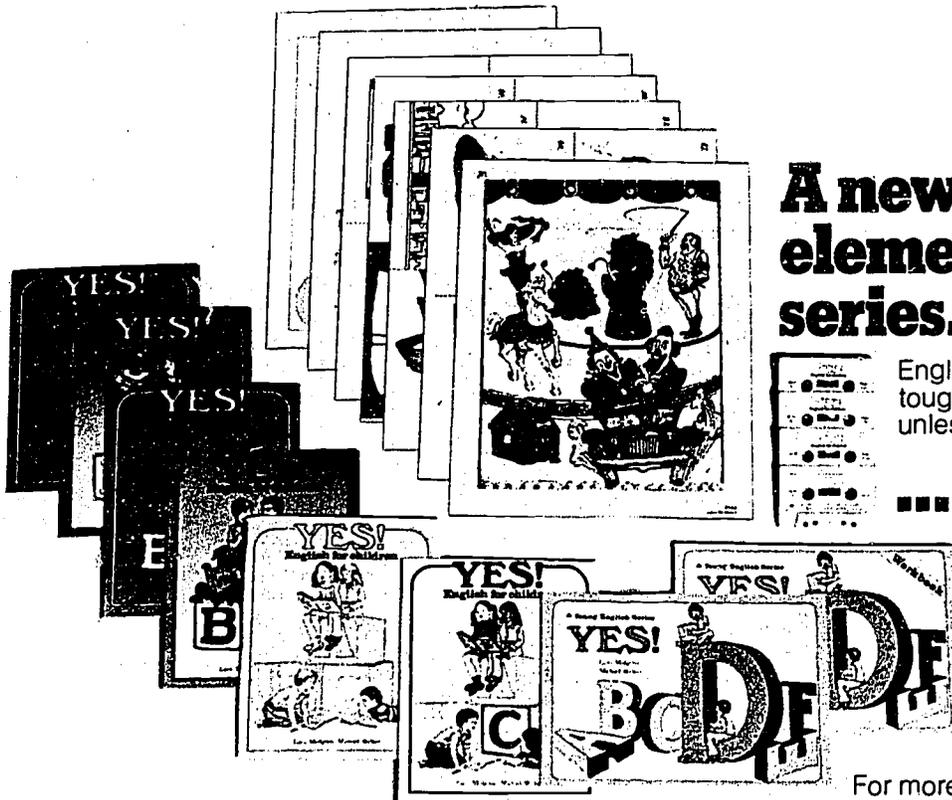
You'll soon automatically learn to deduce
their contextual meanings— till then,

What's The Use!"

Directions: Read the above poem, and
make sure you know which of the fol-
lowing meanings applies in each of the
underlined forms.

- a) *habitual action in the past*
- b) *to become accustomed to*
- c) *to employ, or utilize*
 1. active
 2. passive
- d) *without purpose*
- e) *helpful*

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HOMWORK ASSIGNMENTS IN THE E.S.L. CLASS THAT WORK

By Frederick L. Jenks
Florida State University

Homework assignments were long viewed as an integral companion to classroom activities. Homework was the means by which (a) classroom learning was "reinforced", (b) work not covered by the teacher in the allotted time was doled out to students for completion on their own, (c) students might preview new material in preparation for upcoming classes, and (d) students were to review for quizzes and exams. Many are the instances in which homework became a punishment when students did not perform per the teacher's expectations within the class. Homework, frequently assigned and infrequently accomplished, became a major factor in determining the level of teacher popularity as mass media and mass transportation absorbed a greater portion of students' out-of-class attention. Thus, what was (and is) a logical means for enhancing classroom learning has been virtually eliminated from the curriculum, joining the whipping board and dunce cap as an academic artifact.

When "work in class" is lexically separated from "work outside class", negative reactions appear to escalate. However, just as "extra-curricular" activities of the 1950's evolved into "co-curricular" activities in following decades, so may extra work at home become "co-class" activity. Indeed, in a communicatively active E.S.L. class for adults or high schoolers, co-class work can be—and probably should be—the core of the syllabus. If, as Altman states, "It is the meaningful and realistic application of language in personal communication settings which leads to competence and/or communicative fluency," (1978) it follows that activities which provide meaningful and realistic scenarios for language interchange outside the classroom are critical components in the instructional plan.

How can a teacher plan "homework" activities with communicative requisites? How can "role play" be replaced with *real-play*? The suggestions offered in this article can be broadly characterized as "community-oriented tasks" (Paulston and Bruder: 1976:63), techniques that bring native English speakers and E.S.L. students together in a non-classroom setting.

The Autograph Book. The purpose of this technique is to acquaint learners with the community while simultaneously requiring that they engage in basic conversations (introductions, greetings, departings, etc.) with a native speaker of English.

The major planning responsibility of the instructor is to elicit the cooperation of willing autographers. Experience indicates that the autographers should be accessible, approachable, and willing to participate.

The procedures are outlined to students thusly:

(1) Students will purchase or receive from the instructor a small pad of paper. The autographers will sign on one sheet of paper their name and the date.

(2) Students will receive a mimeographed list of potential autographers, their addresses, their hours of availability, and their professional position (business leader, civic leader, student, staff or faculty member, etc.).

(3) From the list, the learner will ask for and receive a specific number of autographs (usually $\frac{2}{3}$ of those listed or a minimum of fifteen) within a prescribed period of time (one or two weeks).

(4) When the autographs have been collected, each student will present his assortment to the instructor who will check them for authenticity.

(5) The teacher will urge the students to describe their most memorable autographer, their most memorable conversation, the most difficult autographer to locate, etc.

This technique activates no less than fifteen times the inclass lessons on greetings, introductions, requests for permission, and departures. In addition, contact with native speakers of English are made and, in most cases, several minutes of liberated conversation occur.

The imaginative selecting of autographers can introduce students to the doorsteps of campus and community services, to consumer agencies, to civil servants, and to helpful individuals. Some examples of reliable autographers are the athletic trainer, the football team's manager, the director of women's athletics, the editors of the student newspaper and university publications, the director of alumni affairs, an officer of the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the manager of the local shopping mall, a librarian, a registrar's assistant who handles foreign academic transcripts, and an employee of the tourism office.

Worth noting is that students received such items as discount coupons and courtesy cards from several enthusiastic retailers.

Intercultural Inquiry List (IIL). The purpose of this activity is to promote real-life oral communication between E.S.L. students and native speakers of English by providing each party with a printed sheet of questions answerable only by the other person. Each IIL has a dual intent: (a) to provide conversa-

tion starters in the form of assigned questions to be answered, and (b) to bring to the learner information that may be of interest and/or importance.

The two groups of students are brought together through the cooperative planning of the E.S.L. instructor and several Foreign Language instructors representing different languages that are being taught to native English speakers. The instructors prepare IIL's for their target language, arrange a timetable for students of E.S.L. and foreign languages to meet, and reserve a site for the meetings. The two groups of language learners will meet, complete the questioning of each other, and leave with completed IIL's.

From the following example of an IIL for an E.S.L. learner, it can be seen that the nature of the questions is informal; questions may deal with common or global topics such as food, entertainment, currency, and holidays. Furthermore, the answers to the questions are not readily available without the aid of a native speaker of the target language. That factor alone seems to be a major key to the enthusiastic participation of the answering party.

Example:

Intercultural Inquiry List

Questioner: E.S.L. student

Answerer: native speaker of English

Directions. Ask your partner the following questions. Write your partner's answer on the IIL. After your partner has answered five questions, you must find another partner. No one native speaker of English may answer more than five of your list's questions. At the bottom of the page, the English speaker will sign his/her name and indicate the questions answered.

1. What is "succotash"?
2. What is Harlem?
3. What instrument does Pete Fountain play?
4. Who is Dumbo?
5. What is a "Baby Ruth"?
6. There are two major leagues in American professional baseball. What are the names of these leagues?
7. How much is "two bits"?
8. What is a corn plaster?
9. Abraham Lincoln is a national hero in the U.S.A. What were two of his occupations prior to becoming President?
10. A young actor captured the attention of teenagers in the 1950's. Two of his most famous movies were "Rebel Without a Cause" and "East of Eden." What was his name and is he alive?
11. What sound does "Rice Krispies" make?
12. Pets are very common in the U.S.A. Who are "Black Beauty", "Mister Ed", "Rin Tin Tin", and "Fred" (on the television program, *Baretta*)?
13. Who is Rip Van Winkle?
14. What would you do with an "Edsel"?

Continued on next page

HOMEWORK

Continued from page 11

15. Where would you put a "knick-knack"? (pronounced: nick nack)

Questions _____, _____, _____, _____, _____
answered by _____.

Questions _____, _____, _____, _____, _____
answered by _____.

Questions _____, _____, _____, _____, _____
answered by _____.

When I observed E.S.L. students and native speakers of English at work on these assignments, I calculated that approximately twenty percent of the conversation centered on answering the specific questions. Additional explanations, cross-cultural comparisons, related questions and answers, and simple chatting accounted for the remaining eighty percent of language interchange. Also, even though the questioner talks less than the respondent, the fact that both parties will play the inquiring as well as the answering roles brings the quantitative output into balance.

Similar exercises which focus on one topic per exercise, usually a topic related to a community service, are described by Paulston and Bruder (1976: 63). Their suggestions are easier to plan but lack the cross-cultural facet in the inquiry.

Real-Play. A commonly used and generally successful technique for practicing "real language" usage in typical communicative situations is the role play, an "exercise where the student is assigned a fictitious role from which he has to improvise some kind of behavior toward the other characters" (Paulston and Bruder: 1976:70). After the teacher describes a scenario, assigns roles, provides characterizations, and explains underlying assumptions to the class, the playlet is acted out. Evaluations are generally completed with attention to communicative completeness, naturalness of delivery, and conversational flow. When well designed, well explained to students, and sufficiently controlled, the role play is a stimulating language-to-life exercise. But, there are recurring problems.

A major problem was illustrated at a TESOL 1977 Conference session on role plays (Furey:1977). Videotapes of in-class role plays portrayed, in one instance, a group of five E.S.L. learners discussing a real estate transaction. The roles were well-defined, the hidden agendas were verbalized smoothly, and everyone performed adequately. In spite of these factors, the role play suffered from numerous factual errors delivered by the "real estate agent". His gross misconceptions about mortgages, monthly payments, and down payments were stated in flawless English. The problem is obvious; a role play which permits

participants to unwittingly spout misinformation in front of an audience of learners is poor preparation for real communication.

A second common problem is kinesic inaccuracy. For example, a "dead fish" handshake usually accompanies a role play in which participants who are non-Americans greet each other. Since the looser handshake may be customary to them, neither reacts negatively to it. Even when it is seen by the teacher, it is rarely noted in the evaluation as being a negative feature. In "real situations" (Stevick: 1971), gestures and touch signals are major vehicles of messages. As such, they should be explained, performed, and evaluated as vital components of the role play.

The *real play* is a response to the above-mentioned problems. In addition, it employs the positive aspects of the role play. It is a role play performed outside the classroom in the actual setting with a native speaker of English playing one major role. The necessary ingredients, then, are an English speaker who is willing to cooperate, prepare, and participate, advance permission to use an actual setting, and classroom instruction of learners in both the linguistic/kinesic probabilities and the factual information supporting the encounter.

A sample real play on "Installment Purchasing" would adhere to the same pre-planning outline as used for a role play. Additional planning steps include the following:

(1) The teacher will secure the active assistance of an English speaker who agrees to participate in the real play during a specific week at selected times of the day. Some potential assistants are used car dealers, managers of furniture or appliance stores, and mobile home dealers. To minimize any "shady" activities, the teacher should rely on friends, cooperative university alumni, and spouses of T.E.S.L. majors.

(2) The teacher will explain and discuss the activity personally with each American participant, and receive assurances that they will make the real play an educational experience rather than an actual selling opportunity.

(3) The teacher distributes for classroom discussion a learning activity packet in which retail terminology, installment buying, methods of payment, etc., are provided. Also included are typical contracts, brochures describing the products, sales tags, and advertisements.

(4) Sample conversational openers are distributed to students on mimeographed sheets. In-class role plays transpire, based on this sheet and material in the learning activity packets.

(5) E.S.L. students will select the retailer that they wish to visit, sign up on a time sheet to indicate when they

will appear at the store, receive directions (a map) to their selected store, and obtain a one-page evaluation sheet. On this sheet, which students fill out by themselves, will be the following questions to answer:

"What did you learn about installment buying or about the product that was not presented in our class?"

"What topics did you discuss with the American salesperson?"

"Write a short paragraph describing your visit."

(6) The teacher will deliver the time sheet to the participating retailers several days in advance of students' visits. He/she is asked to supply a brief comment in writing regarding each student's visit and the conversation.

(7) Classroom discussions and question-answer sessions ensue based on the real-play experiences as post-activity exercises.

In one instance, videotaped recordings of real-plays were made in the retailer's office or store. The participating English speakers portrayed themselves while graduate assistants conducted the filming and played the other roles. Re-play of the tapes in E.S.L. classes provided valuable information and an opportunity for students to see their future conversational partner and surroundings. Furthermore, it helped the native English speakers to "loosen up" and practice for the real-play.

Since this technique requires considerable preparation, the assistance of graduate students in T.E.S.L. is of great benefit. Their involvement in the development of packets, in observing the real-plays, and in assisting in the preparatory stages is not only a source of sound Intern experience but also an aid to learners and the instructor.

As with the *Autograph Book* technique, it is imperative that the teacher have a great deal of confidence in the "outsiders". Their levels of integrity and sincerity are keys to the overall success or failure of the exercises. Furthermore, the teacher must express his/her gratitude and that of the students by sending thank-you notes or by giving token gifts. Among these gratuities may be a "Friend of the Department" scroll, an invitation to a campus event with an international flavor, or a small item from another country. When there has been constant support on the part of an individual, a letter from the teacher to that person's employer is a thoughtful gesture, one that usually brings continuing support.

All of the suggested techniques provide out-of-class practice for students while increasing community involvement. Each technique requires careful preparation and monitoring both in and outside the class. Finally, each activity

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JOURNALS AND NEWSLETTERS

COMPREHENSIVE AFFILIATE REPORT 1979

Carol LeClair

In addition to their newsletters, the following affiliates report other publications, past, present, and future.

British Columbia: Bright Ideas for Dull Days.

California: CATESOL Occasional Papers, 4th issue published in 1978.

Connecticut: A Journal of special activities and conferences in progress.

Illinois: Membership Directory in progress.
Intermountain: Membership Directory in 1978, and I-TESOL Occasional Papers in progress.

Japan: Collected Papers from TEFL 1977 (Nagoya TEFL Conference) in 1978; and Collected Papers from LTIJ 1978 (Tokyo LTIJ Conference) in progress.

Minnesota: An annual collection of papers in progress.

New York State: Collected Papers in ESL & Bilingual Education, 1978.

Ontario: Teaching English as a Second Language in Ontario: Current Issues and Problems, 1978; and a 200-item list of bibliographic entries to be used as a guide for setting up institutional and regional ESL centres, in progress.

Oregon: ORTESOL Journal in progress.

Quebec: SPEAQ Journal, 1977 & 1978.

Spain: Membership Directory in progress.

We asked the affiliates if there were something about their particular newsletter they considered unique, and we learned that Arizona has articles and lesson plans in Spanish, Navajo, Papago and Italian.

Meetings

A pattern is developing in many of the affiliates by which they attempt to vary the site of their meetings in order to be available to more of their members. For instance, Arizona has two meetings annually, one in the northern part of the state and one in the southern part; California not only varies the site of its big statewide convention from year to year, e.g. 1978 in San Francisco and 1979 in Los Angeles, but they hold 6 mini-conferences to cover all areas of the state during the year; Intermountain TESOL held one meeting in Salt Lake City and one in Provo; North Carolina had one in the east and the other in the west; Ohio had one in Columbus and one in Cleveland; Spain had one in Madrid and one in Barcelona; New York State, like California, not only alternates the locale of its yearly conference (such places as Syracuse, Albany and Lake Placid), but also holds mini-conferences. The Michigan affiliate has met in different cities in the southern part of the state, such as Flint and Grand Rapids; Missouri has met in St. Charles and Columbia; Tennessee, brand new, has met in Martin and in Knoxville. The affiliate in Japan is made up of about eight chapters, each of which hold their own meetings which are considered to be meetings of JALT and, therefore, there may be as many as five meetings around the country on one day. While most of the affiliates use facilities at a university or college for their meetings, seven out of 25 respondents reported using hotels.

Special Projects during 1978

Arizona reported working on an increased awareness of culture in teaching ESL and increasing its cooperation with state affiliates of other national organizations. California reported meeting with the officers of other organizations to discuss the position of ESL in bilingual education in their state, although they were not able to report progress on moving the state legislature toward ESL credentialing. Connecticut has requested institutions of higher education to encourage students to attend the conference and provide class attendance credit for such attendance.

Hawaii, with several other educational organizations, has co-sponsored a series of forums on minimum competency testing, and their legislative committee was particularly active informing all Hawaii legislators of their concerns, particularly in the area of testing. Illinois was able to award two scholarships of \$250 each, and their workshops have been awarded inservice credit by the Illinois Office of Education. Intermountain TESOL (Utah, Idaho and Wyoming) proudly report that they were able to more than double their membership in one year—from 60 to 130. More importantly, they are willing to share their methods with other affiliates.

Minnesota has set up a resource information center where ESL/BE materials will be available for perusal, and they are working hard on credentialing, as well as trying to gain financial support from their state legislature to continue bilingual pilot projects and to fund ESL in the public schools. The New York affiliate has achieved tax-exempt status, and state certification—two milestones! Ohio is working on an institutional directory.

Ontario has set up a provincial affiliate network, with membership in an affiliate automatically conferred on individuals joining the provincial body. The affiliate system is intended to increase communication in geographically vast Ontario. Ontario also held a special symposium on ESL and literacy, and is conducting a follow-up of the special report on ESL in Ontario by contacts with administrators and government officials at all levels. Oregon is also working on certification for ESL/BE.

In Austin, Texas, the affiliate Executive Committee testified before the State Board of Education when the Board was considering a new plan for bilingual education which would have mandated it through fifth grade. It was deemed a great surprise that TESOL would support bilingual education. The affiliate feels that they set the stage for "much sharing and supporting of BE organizations."

Problems and Needs

Some of the needs and areas for concentration which recurred most frequently in affiliate reports were: how to organize and/or reach members or prospective members in outlying areas; obtaining ESL certification in the states; how to organize, share, and function among interest groups; the lack of full-time jobs and decent pay for ESL teachers; to gain institutionalization of Intensive English Programs at colleges and universities; and to take a stand on the testing problem—critique tests and develop new ones.

Continued on next page

System. An international journal of Educational Technology and Language Learning Systems, published in association with the Pergamon Institute of English (Oxford). This journal, formerly published in Sweden has changed its address to Headington Hill Hall, Oxford OX3 0BW, England.

TESL Canada Newsletter. First issue was April, 1979. New newsletter of the newly formed national TESOL organization in Canada. For further information write to Ian Martin, Communications Coordinator, TESL Canada, 180 Fulton Ave., Toronto, Ontario M4K 1Y3.

ESL/LEL/MLA Newsletter. English as a Second Language, Language Experience Literacy, Music Language Arts newsletter printed by the New York City Board of Education. Full of articles and ideas. For further information write ESL/LEL/MLA Title I ESEA Program, 66 Court St., 15th Floor, Brooklyn, NY 11201.

Verbatim, The Language Quarterly. A rather sophisticated bulletin on language, of interest to language enthusiasts. For subscription information write to Essex, Conn. 06426 or Utica, NY 13503.

Modern Language Teachers Association of Queensland Journal (MLTAQ). The third issue, February, 1979, is called Languages Unlock the World. Contains articles dealing with the teaching of modern languages. For further information write to Gary Murray, Editor, Journal and Newsletter, 31 Thynne Ave., Norman Park, QLD. 4170, Queensland, Australia.

TEAL Occasional Papers. The third volume, published in 1979, contains excellent articles and is titled From Learning English to Learning in English. For information (or purchase: \$4.50) write to B.C. T.E.A.L. Occasional Papers, c/9 B.C. Teachers' Federation, 2235 Burrard Street, Vancouver, B.C. V6J 3H9.

ICP Newsletter. Institute of Cultural Pluralism. A newsletter on bilingual-bicultural education. Write to the Editor, San Diego State University, 5544 1/2 Hardy Ave., San Diego, CA 92182.

The E.F.L. Gazette. An interesting newspaper on teaching E.F.L. published in English, covering a variety of topics, especially relevant to teaching overseas. For contributions and enquiries write to The Editorial Committee, Munster House, 676 Fulham Road, London SW6 5SA, England.

Cross Currents is a biannual journal of communication, language, and cross-cultural skills published by the Language Institute of Japan. Major emphasis is on practical ideas for classroom use with primary focus on Japanese students of English. The most recent issue, Vol. VI No. 1, is currently available and manuscripts are now being solicited for future issues. Available from the Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Japan 250. TN 8/79

COMPREHENSIVE AFFILIATE REPORT FOR 1979

Name or Location	Year Organized	# of Members	Dir. Structure				Standing Committees	Newsletter						
			Reg.	Stud.	Inst.	Commer.		Year Begun	1978 Issues	Average # Pages	Typed Copy	Printed	# of Meetings	Average Attendance
Arizona	(re) 1973	307	\$ 5	\$ 2	\$10	\$ 10	Constitutional Revision	1975	4	8	Set.	Offset	2	275
British Columbia	1967	389	\$10	\$ 5	\$25	\$100	Occas. Papers, Scholarship, Workshop, Conference, & Pre-service Ed of Adult ESL Educators	1968	4	8		X	2	
California	1969	1700	\$10	\$ 5		\$ 25	Publications, Sociopolitical Concerns, Conference, Research, Resource Bank, Nominating	1969	5	8		X	7	Mini-300 Statewide-1300
Connecticut	1969	225	\$ 5	\$ 5	\$10	\$ 25	Sociopolitical Concerns, Membership	1969	3	7-8		X	12 Exec.	10-12
Hawaii		412	\$ 7	\$ 4	\$20		Executive, Nominating, Membership, Program, Finance, Publicity, Publications, Social	1969	5	6	X	X		
Illinois	1970	499	\$ 8	\$ 5		\$27.50	Nominations, Scholarship, Professional Meetings, Sociopolitical Conc., Finance, Publications, Convention, Publicity	1972	4	12	Set	X	7 Professional 12 Exec.	Lunch-80 Convention 300 Workshops 50-150
Intermountain	1972	130	\$5.50	\$ 5	\$32.50		Nominating	1978	5	4	X	X	2	70
Japan	1977	860	\$25			\$150		1977	4	28	X	X	about 50 chapter meetings	
Lower Susquehanna	1976	44	\$ 3				Executive, Membership, PR & Newsletter, Social, Sociopolitical	1976	4	7-8		Mimeo	4	75-100
Michigan	1975	300	\$ 3	\$ 2	\$10		Membership, Constitution & By-laws, Evaluation, Nominating	1975	2	8	X	Mimeo	2	125
Minnesota	1978		\$ 5		\$15		Nominating, Membership, Program, PR, Publications, Materials & Curriculum	1977	3	12	X	X	2	110
Missouri	1978	86	\$ 4	\$ 2			Program, Membership, Publications, & Nominating	1978	1	6	X		1	70
New Mexico	1978	75	\$ 5	\$ 3			Executive			In progress for 1979			6	40
New York	1970	740	\$10	\$10	\$10	\$ 10	Sociopolitical Concerns, Nominations, & Publications	1971	4	5	Set	X	6	Mini-35 State-300
North Carolina	1977	46	\$10	\$ 5			Resources, Finance, Program, & Publicity	1978	4	8	X	Xerox	4	20
Ohio	1977	175	\$ 5	\$2.50			Newsletter, Nominations, Convention	1978	4	6		Mimeo	2	75
Ontario	1972	1100	\$12				Executive, Editorial Review Board, Future, Review, Conference	1972	4	16	Set	X	7 Exec. 1 Gen.	200+
Oregon	1977	170	\$ 5	\$ 4	\$10		Executive, Nominating, Conference, Membership	1977	3	13	X	X	1	140
Puerto Rico		500+					Membership							
Quebec Province	1973	830	\$25					1973	5	4	Set	X	1	800
Spain	1977	251	\$ 7			\$ 42		1977	3	15	X	Xerox	1	250
Tennessee	1979	35	\$ 5		\$20					In progress for 1979			1	30
Texas I, El Paso	1970	131	\$ 4				Membership	1978	2	4	X		2	260
Texas II, San Antonio	1977	101	\$ 2				Newsletter, Membership, Nominating	1978	2	2	X		5	150
Texas III, Austin	1978	107	\$3.50	\$ 2			Newsletter, Sociopolitical Concerns, Travel, Membership, & Program	1978	2	2	X	Mimeo	2	80
Texas IV, Houston	1978	53	\$ 4	\$ 2				1978	1	4	X	Mimeo	1	20
Wisconsin	1972	75	\$ 3				Publications, Membership, & Conference	1972	2	6	X		2	70



IT WORKS

Darlene Larson
New York University

In ESOL classrooms of students from many language backgrounds, teachers are regularly employing avenues to new language forms which are built on language forms and content already studied. Learning English through English has many advantages for learners, but is criticized as being time-consuming. It is faster to give a translation than to gather English bits and pieces together and combine them in a new way. But faster, to what end? The opportunity for much insight and understanding has been lost when learners are denied the opportunity to experience the way the English language "works." We haven't been able to measure the cost to long-term memory or to functional understandings when a quick translation has been employed in order to get on with the lesson and proceed to the next.

In ESOL classes of students from the same language background one would expect a lot of translation because the time-consuming process of English through English would not be necessary. Thus, it is particularly important, I think, to take note of the comments of George P. Hepworth in the following article, "A Duck is a Bird..." When translation was impossible, another route was followed to introduce young Choctaw children to the English language quirk called relative clauses. We are most grateful to Hepworth for taking the time to detail the building blocks he used, and particularly happy to learn that it appears to have worked.

A DUCK IS A BIRD...

George R. Hepworth
Choctaw Department of Education
Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians
Philadelphia, Mississippi 39350

For the last four years, the Bilingual Education for Choctaws of Mississippi (BECOM) Program has been operating in the BIA school system of the Mississippi Choctaws, providing instruction in the native language and systematic ESL instruction. Unfortunately, most commercially available ESL materials for children are based on the assumption that Spanish will be the native language of the children in a bilingual program, so we must do a lot of innovating and adapting to fit our own needs. One of our more rewarding efforts was based on a contrastive analysis of "relative clauses" in English and their counterparts in Choctaw. It appears that there is no parallel, or only a superficial one, between the two constructions. Hence, we decided to try teaching the use of relative clauses in English from a dif-

ferent tack, without assuming any positive transfer from Choctaw into English. The solution that worked is a simple sentence combining activity designed to highlight the meaning of the combinations of sentences into relative clauses.

Most BIA teachers, working with the Choctaw Teaching Aide, plan a unit on animals early in the school year, although there is no set curriculum in this school system. Since *animals* would be a part of the content of most classes, it seemed like a good choice for our ESL activity. The animal pictures needed are already available and familiar to the students, and they were talking about animals in their Choctaw and English science classes.

Birds and Cats (Felines) were the two groups chosen for the ESL Activity.

"Sentence" is a familiar concept for children in second and third grades—the age group we aimed at with this activity. When the pictures were presented for identification, therefore, we asked for complete sentences, to bring the children's attention to them, but we did not correct single word answers when these were given also. We switched our attention to the *similarities* and the *differences* between the different animals in our group, Lion, Tiger, House Cat, Cardinal, Turkey, Duck, and Chicken. When enough similarities and differences were noted, we made two groups, the Birds and the Felines (a name supplied by the teacher). We then made up sentences about the animals.

A cardinal is a bird.
A duck is a bird.
A tiger is a feline.
A chicken is a bird.
A turkey is a bird.
A cat is a feline.
A lion is a feline.

The children were then asked to sort the sentences into two groups, according to whether they were about felines or about birds.

A cardinal is a bird.
A duck is a bird.
A turkey is a bird.
A chicken is a bird.
A tiger is a feline.
A lion is a feline.
A cat is a feline.

Then, the children were asked to take turns making up sentences about each of the birds on the list, one at a time. The sentences were written immediately after those for the basic identification as birds.

A turkey is a bird.
A turkey has a big tail.
A chicken is a bird.
A chicken can't fly.
A cardinal is a bird.
A cardinal is red.
A duck is a bird.
A duck can swim.

At this point, the children were asked if they know how to turn each of these

sets of two sentences into single sentences. Someone immediately suggested using "and" for this purpose.

A cardinal is a bird, and a cardinal is red.

A duck is a bird, and a duck can swim.
A turkey is a bird, and a turkey has a big tail.

A chicken is a bird, and a chicken can't fly.

These sentences are much closer to the structures used in Choctaw to express the same idea which English would normally render as a relative clause. Because of this fact, we designed the exercise to include this "intermediate" stage in the derivation of the relative clauses. It was felt (and it later turned out) that there would be greater understanding of the meaning carried by relative clauses if the children could relate them to this intermediate step.

At this point, the children were told that there is another way to make the sentences say the same thing, except that this way is shorter and easier to say. After some coaxing by the children, the teacher was persuaded to share this knowledge with them.

We began by underlining part of the original sentence.

A cardinal is a bird, and a cardinal is red.

Then, someone was asked to erase the underlined part. When this was done, the teacher asked the children to listen closely to the sentence as he read it, saying the word "that" in the appropriate place in the sentence. When asked "What word filled in the blank space?" the children gave the answer.

One by one, the other sentences were modified by the group in the same way, yielding the list below.

A cardinal is a bird that is red.
A duck is a bird that can swim.
A turkey is a bird that has a big tail.
A chicken is a bird that can't fly.

Being assured that these "short" sentences mean the same thing as the "longer" sentences they are related to, the children soon make up other sentences like them.

A turkey is a bird that has a red comb.
A chicken is a bird that lays eggs.
And so on.

As a final check on their understanding, the children were asked first to supply the second sentence for the Felines on the list, and then to copy the two sentences down from the chalkboard and convert them into the appropriate sentences.

While it is not clear yet that there is any greater overall understanding of relative clauses, the start we have made encourages us to continue in this direction, tailoring our ESL activities to the needs of the Choctaw children of the Mississippi Band of Choctaw Indians.

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ESL CULTURAL TRANSITION

Continued from page 1

ing is, obviously, the most explicit in our job description.

Our second role, less clearly defined, is the assistance we can offer our students that is related to re-socialization. In some form or another, we help gather and sort and snap together all the unfamiliar jig-saw pieces of a new and strange cultural milieu. We are cohorts in the frustration of change and the joys of discovery. This phenomenon in an ESL teacher-student relationship has always seemed to me a perfect example of Fritz Perls' philosophy, "Teaching is merely showing someone that something is possible. Learning is nothing more than discovering that something is possible."

Our third role, and the least recognized, is that of facilitator of the psychosocial adjustment of our students in their new environment. And this, I feel, is an area that calls for more clarification and acknowledgement. Before immigrants can experience success in adaptation to the way of life in the United States, they must have a re-affirmation of the validity of their own ideas, needs, and feelings. They must be aware of a sense of security and place. They must know the uplifting quality of group identity and the power that comes from self-confidence and achievement. (Charnofsky)

We, in our ESL classes, can promote the adjustment of our students and heighten their motivation if we carefully attend to five specific factors as we develop our curricula.

Relevance: The language learning process should focus on immediate and relevant topics of mutual interest and concern and be conversational and interactional in nature.

Security: Our classrooms must become islands of security and support, because we know that those who are afraid of embarrassment, ridicule, or failure will not try.

Personal Esteem: To become involved and to want to participate, a person must first value himself enough to believe that what he experiences, feels, and thinks about is worth sharing.

Group Trust: The student must value and trust other class members enough to think that they are worth sharing with.

Success: To achieve a free and motivated atmosphere in our classrooms, we must give our students a feeling of satisfaction in attainment during each class hour.

I would like to explore each of these five points in program and curricula development, and show their importance and impact on the process of cultural change.

1.) A relevant ESL curriculum must reach out to the perceptual world of the student. It relates directly to his family, his work, his past experience and his aspirations. In order to stimulate a student's desire to learn, he must feel that the material presented is worth knowing and of use to his future life beyond the immediate learning situation. As Bruner has pointed out, too often a second language has been taught as "an explicit set of rules for generating well-formed strings of utterances out of context." The traditional classroom approach of focusing on grammar and the structural properties of the target language seldom proves to be a successful enterprise—especially not with non-academic adult learners. Our students should be given the opportunity to indicate what it is they wish to learn and discuss. They must be allowed and encouraged to express their personal values.

When we invite our students to talk about something they feel strongly about or something they know a lot about, they tend to forget their shyness. They don't have to be concerned about content—they only need to look for the words to express themselves. Rather than being concerned with, "What can I possibly talk about?" their consideration is only, "Now, how can I say this?"

2. To help our students develop a feeling of security and independence, we can create an environment that is non-judgmental, that promotes assertiveness and creativity. We can provide an atmosphere that encourages experimentation and play—free from tension. Lozanov stresses the importance of making our classroom atmosphere "Pleasurable and relaxed, so that psychological interferences cannot distract the students from their task." Something as simple as inviting your class to bring cushions for their hard folding chairs or playing recorded music during writing practice can effect a change in the feeling of the space you create. We have learned that adult learners of non-academic background should be allowed to progress through developmental stages, to make mistakes and experiment with the language much as children learning their native language. They are able to gain confidence through low risk, non-threatening group exercises that ensure success. (Asher) We show them that they are able to understand and be understood even in the earliest stages of the learning process. We try to maximize the opportunities for freedom to be spontaneous and to use their creativity and intuition. Teachers who can draw out these child-like qualities in their students provide the best environment for productive language learning.

3. Given a feeling of adequacy and encouragement about their personal expressive abilities, students will attain higher self-concepts and will gain com-

mitment to the pursuit of other learning experiences. People who are consistently encouraged to perceive themselves as real communicators with something valid to say will ultimately educate themselves in new skills. In the past we may have unwittingly set our students up for failure with negative programming through low expectations or, conversely, through setting unrealistically high goals for them. Now we have become more aware of our power to counteract the fears and conditioning of self-image that the students may have met in their previous environments by sincere expressions of confidence in each one's capabilities. (Finocchiaro)

Students who realize that we have a deep, honest caring respect for each individual, that we find each one unique and valuable to the class family, soon begin to believe in their own desire to know and understand. And this experience lasts much longer than the actual classroom experience.

4. Unless students feel comfortable with the teacher and with each other, they will not be able to achieve the freedom necessary for learning. We can encourage them to work and learn cooperatively—to study in dyads or small groups rather than alone and competitively. They learn that the highs and lows of their reality are a shared experience. A good class pulls together into a cooperative community where all students find their place and their own particular way to contribute. In such a class, although differentiated activities may be prepared for individuals with special interests or needs, the main emphasis is *integrative*. It is not only to our advantage, but to the students' as well, to develop and plan activities that keep our whole class working together, mixing all linguistic strengths, age levels, ethnic backgrounds and sexes. Isn't this setting a more realistic mirror of society at large and better preparation for our immigrants?

We must provide the surroundings that help our students retain pride in their own native languages and traditions. As we encourage them to continue to *identify* with their own co-nationals and to feel strength in their ethnicity, they gradually move toward acceptance of English and its speakers. Cultural differences are noted and lauded as positive factors, just as the universality of human experience is reinforced. With the concept of unity in diversity, feelings of prejudice and defensiveness are minimized. Perhaps more than any other, this dimension of personal and social integration, should take precedence in the ESL classroom.

5. Mary Finocchiaro has taught us that each class hour should give the students conviction that what they are learning is valuable and that they are

Continued on next page

ESL AND CULTURAL TRANSITION

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moving forward. This doesn't mean that they must learn a new body of material each day to feel successful. It may mean that they are acquiring a little more fluency in saying a familiar sentence. They may take home three or four new and essential pieces of vocabulary or a new insight as to what is "going on," in this country! It may simply mean that they are arriving at a little more self-confidence or finding a more comfortable framework in which to expand and grow. In order for each student to experience the consistent good feelings of progress, they are given tasks in which they are sure to succeed, goals that they are sure to reach, while maintaining a sense of challenge. We can accomplish this only by being fine-tuned to each student's capabilities and by maintaining a day-to-day sensitivity to each one's level of performance.

ESL for non-academic adults is best facilitated by structuring our linguistic input in a way that parents structure input for their children. The initial goal should be one of "uninhibited communication"; correcting should be done sparingly in the early phase of acquisition. (Asher) Initially, students should not receive formal instruction in grammatical transformations of their new language; this would merely hinder the learning

WANTED

Slides and photos of TESOL activities around the world.

WHY?

A multi-media presentation at the TESOL Summer Meeting and TESOL 1980.

Send to: John Haskell, TESOL Newsletter Editor, Department of Linguistics, Northeastern Illinois University, Chicago, Illinois, 60625. Please indicate the activity depicted and a return address.

process. As students progress through developmental stages, they initially experience comprehension through the use of simplified teacher speech, through physical/kinesthetic methods, through visual sequencing (cards, pictures, posters, etc.), through manipulation of real objects, and through rhythmic or musical linguistic practice such as Carolyn Graham's Jazz Chants. Students with no academic background respond best to the visual and kinesthetic approaches rather than through texts, workbooks and drills. The use of tapes, films, pictures; drama, body movement, music and puppets help them to find success and self-confidence early on through viewing, touching, and listening.

To summarize, each day, more and

more Third World emigrants are finding their way to the United States in search of better opportunities to provide for their families with dignity. The skills and cultural patterns they bring with them may be poor preparation for finding a comfortable place within our society and for succeeding in their quest for adequate work and living conditions. Sensitive, well-trained teachers can not only assist them to attain essential communication and survival skills, but also offer them a valuable space in which to begin to solve their psychological re-acculturation dilemmas in the company of empathetic supportive companions.

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THE GOLDEN RULES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION BY YOUNG CHILDREN*

By Bruce Gaarder

During the first ten or twelve years of life, young children have the mysterious, miraculous ability to learn languages in addition to their mother tongue completely, effortlessly, and to a large extent unconsciously. Because we understand so little about how this miracle occurs, it can fairly be asserted that millions of young children have done this, yet no one can claim to have taught a second language to a little child. Therefore, the pedagogy is not at all to analyze the language in order to reveal the items of its phonology, morphology and syntax—not to mention its semantics—and then devise an optimal order of presentation, practice, etc., of those items; rather, the pedagogy is to place the child in optimal situations for the mystery to occur, in the secure knowledge that it very likely will occur.

Of course, learning is always a function of the learner, not the teacher, but the essential difference between, on the one hand, learning arithmetic or reading or a musical instrument and, on the other hand, learning a new language is not generally understood. For the first three, the structured, optimal presentation is essential. For language learning, the structured, supposedly optimal presentation is counterproductive, even disastrous. The younger the child, the greater the significance of these statements. (Needless to say, for older learners who have largely lost—it is never lost entirely—the mysterious power to acquire the language 'unconsciously' the structured, optimal order of presentation is essential to efficient formal learning.)

The two golden rules of second language pedagogy for teachers of young children are therefore:

1. Work, speak, and act with complete naturalness, as if the new language were the only language in the world and the children's entire education depended on you, the teacher.

2. Never try to teach language *per se*; rather, teach life (joy, sorrow, work, play, relationships, concepts, differentiation, self-awareness, awareness of others, etc.) by involving the children in situations and activities which are highly significant to them—although not necessarily and exclusively pleasurable and with the new language the sole and inescapable, unavoidable means to the children's participation.

There is an instructive—even if limited—analogy between these rules and the golden rule of ethics: Do unto others as you would have them do unto you. The analogy appears when one consid-

ers the whole of theology, doctrine, dogma and ritual that might be said to underlie the rule of ethics; and the sciences of linguistics and sociolinguistics that illuminate the pedagogical rules. These great bodies of knowledge will and must be studied by their specialists. For the more common purposes of human interaction—including interacting with young children—simple, comprehensive precepts have always been more useful, less subject to misinterpretation.

1) The two languages will be kept separate, which is fundamental to the child's later control and conception of them as separate systems representing distinct cultures. This is particularly crucial in bilingual (dual-medium) education if the objective is to maintain both languages rather than simply to transfer the child away from its mother tongue to another language.

2) The teacher will not attempt to teach one language in terms of the other. This practice takes many forms; translation, explanations in one language of the supposed 'peculiarities' of the other, mixing elements of one language with elements of the other, etc. It is counterproductive because it tends to prevent the miracle of natural learning from taking place. For example, when the teacher alternates constantly, sentence by sentence (and they will do this!) between the two languages, expressing each thought first in the one then in the other, the miracle cannot take place, for the child then has no compelling reason to acquire the new tongue. He can wait at most a few seconds and comprehend in his own first tongue.

3) The required 'complete naturalness' will prevent the common, unnecessary practice of habitually addressing the learners in an unnaturally slow, syllable-by-syllable fashion, on the mistaken assumption that a child cannot grasp normally rapid speech. This practice is commonly observed in persons who conceive of the new tongue as a 'foreign' language and who themselves have difficulty understanding it, but it is also a practice among educated, native speakers.

The second of the pedagogical rules, if followed, will have these effects:

1) It will largely prevent the teacher from making the almost universally common mistake of assuming that the learning of a new language is essentially and principally the learning of lists of words—new 'names' for things. It should be needless to reiterate here that learning a new language is essentially the acquisition of easy, native-like control of the extremely complex, interrelated systems of morphology (form) and syntax (order). Vocabulary expansion becomes, much later, a major problem, and the semantic problems of differing fields of

denotation and connotation of seeming cognates are never entirely solved. In both cases, help and strength come only from wide reading and wide discourse. These are not concerns of young children of their teachers.

2) It will prevent the even more wasteful practice of structuring the supposed language learning process into a supposed optimal order of learning based on phonological analysis, or on contrastive analysis of the two tongues. All such misguided efforts sound reasonable at the level of theory. They are counterproductive for two interlocking reasons: a) Emphasis and presentation of the new language in terms of the supposed hierarchy of its difficulties (in relation to the first language, e.g., "this week we'll emphasize the ch/sh contrast, next week the ship/sheep contrast, etc.) has the effect of inhibiting, even destroying the teacher's main source of power: the full flow of completely authentic speech dealing fully with 'life' as the child is able to perceive and grasp it, and b) there is no evidence anywhere that the involvement and participation referred to in the second pedagogical rule are not the *sine qua non* of second language acquisition by young children. Stated otherwise, language *per se* as an end, rather than a means, is not significant to young children, and the inhibited, constrained speech of the teacher who must focus on the ship/sheep or any other contrast is not the context in which natural language learning—i.e., the miracle—occurs.

The constrained contrastive analysis approach overlooks two other facts of the linguistic reality: a) children not uncommonly show aberrant pronunciation of some sounds of their mother tongue even as late as ten years, but these almost always disappear, and without recourse to or need for contrastively analytical drill; and b) in the case of bilingual children who have a marked accent in the mother tongue, the explanation can better be sought, not in the supposedly ineffective efforts of the accent-free teachers, but in the much greater influence of the parents and other persons in the child's out-of-school environment whose speech in the other tongue is often heavily accented and who unwittingly insist on serving as models for the child.

Both rules together carry an unmistakable implication: the kind of teacher needed to follow them is not only well prepared in the theory and techniques for dealing with and instructing children; she (or he) must also have complete, effortless mastery of the new language, the kind of mastery that can come only with extensive education through the medium of that language, wide reading in it, and intensive, direct

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THE USE OF THE MOTHER TONGUE IN ESL

By Norman Coe
Barcelona, Spain

The world is full of means that have fossilised into ends. Whereas food was originally only a means, albeit a very important one, eating long ago became something that people also do for its own sake. Another example is church architecture, originally intended to facilitate communion with God, now often admired more by tourists than by the devout. And a more recent example is jeans, not long ago worn only by people who needed tough clothes to do a tough job, now also worn by you and me in schools and offices.

In themselves these changes are neither good nor bad, but when the same thing happens in education, then we have got our wires crossed and so, not least in TESOL, we must continually refer to our ends and test our means against them. One of the fossilised means of recent years has been the prohibition of the mother tongue in our classrooms. (Of course, we could never stop it happening in students' heads, but we ignored that and forbade its overt use.) Originally, this was a means: teachers of ESOL believed that the most effective way to learn an L² (second language) (end) involved, among other things, trying to forget that the L¹ (first language) even existed (means). This means was not seriously tested against experience, and for many it became an article of faith. TESOL teachers said proudly: "I never allowed a word of French/Greek/Swedish, etc., to be uttered in my classroom." For them the means had fossilised into an end.

Now that the ice is slowly melting, I think it is worth reviewing those TESOL situations in which the L¹ should be considered as a possible, and in some cases the most effective, means to achieve the goals of our teaching.

Teacher uses students' L¹ to them

Instructions. We choose a certain classroom activity because it improves the students' comprehension, fluency, accuracy, or whatever. This is the goal. In order to carry out the activity effectively, the students must understand exactly what is expected of them. With beginners this can often be best achieved by giving the instructions in the L¹.

Explanations. When we explain points of grammar, etc., our intention is to be understood. If the understanding of the explanation is likely to be seriously impaired by poor understanding of English, then again the L¹ would serve the purpose better.

Introduction to New Techniques. When

a technique is new to the students, they may well see the point of it and appreciate its usefulness to them if they first do an example of it in the L¹. For example, cloze techniques often give rise to frustration, which is vented in thoughts such as "it's all guesswork". However, if students are first asked to do one in their own language, and they subsequently analyse and discuss their choices with each other, they quickly see that guesswork plays a minor role and that the solution of the problems involves virtually every aspect of language. Having seen this, they will then take to cloze passages in English with much more zest, and the learning will consequently be more effective.

Introduction to the Language Laboratory. Even in our mechanised age there are many students who find it difficult to adapt themselves to a language laboratory. Inexperienced students have three problems: (i) what to do with the machine, (ii) what to do with the language, and (iii) how to express (ii) in English. It is probably much less time-wasting in the long run to climate (iii) in the first uses of the lab, and instead do (short) things in the native language until (i) and (ii) have been mastered.

The Animal is not so Strange. Learning is sometimes impeded by the resistance that students feel when they meet something in the target language that is apparently totally alien. The animal that they are trying to come to grips with seems to be a very strange beast indeed. At these points it often puts students at their ease if it is explained that their mother tongue has a similar peculiarity in another part of the language.

For example, Spanish students find it difficult to swallow that *do* is required for certain sentence operations but has no referential meaning. How odd! Here, we can point out that in Spanish you say:

Vi tu libro (I saw your book)

Vi a tu hermana (I saw your sister)

The *a* is required when the grammatical object refers to a person, but not otherwise, and it has no referential meaning. Again, Spanish students might say, with a bemused expression, "How can English have one word ('know') for both *saber* and *conocer*?" And to this one might reply that speakers of English find it just as strange that Spanish has one word (*mañana*), which means both 'morning' and 'tomorrow'. My experience is that students are relieved to find that the animal is more familiar than they had at first thought. Now, with their minds at rest, they can concentrate on learning the language.

Concentration on Particular Points. Given that most of us are not preparing translators, it is still arguable that translation is a good way of concentrat-

ing the mind on particular aspects of the language. I sometimes write on the board half a dozen sentences in the mother tongue, all including points that have come up in previous lessons, for the students—in pairs—to put into English. Admittedly this is uncontextualised practice as it stands, (although no more so than structure drills, for example,) but the context is to some extent provided by the students associating back to the situation in which the structure or vocabulary initially occurred. Students have often volunteered the information that they would like this to be a regular—though short—part of the classes.

Students use their L¹ to the Teacher

Comprehension. If the goal of a classroom activity is comprehension (listening or reading), then it is often ineffective to combine this with the *production* (speaking or writing) of the target language; what has been understood can be expressed in the mother tongue. It is also to be noted that this is a fairly normal situation in real life (and could therefore be included as one of the *goals* of our teaching,) since we often find ourselves in circumstances where one person understands a particular language and has to explain the gist of something (instructions, regulations, the news, etc.) to companions who do not understand the language.

Feedback. When the teacher or a student has given the instructions for a particular activity, or when he has explained a linguistic point, it is his intention that his words should be understood. In order to save time (we believe) we often make do with "Is that clear?" or "Do you all understand?" And smiling nods, or even no response at all, are taken to be confirmation of understanding. Much better, to make sure that pools of ignorance and distorted understanding are not building up, is to ask a student to explain back the main points of what has just been said, and now (to really save time) this should be done in the L¹. It is absolutely essential, of course, that this feedback does not only come from the brightest student in the class. You can start with feedback from a bright student, perhaps, but surely the point was that *everybody* should understand, so feedback is necessary from a slow student as well.

A variation of this, which I have found very useful when addressing a large audience, (for example, a lecture to 60 people,) is to stop after each major point has been made and ask everyone in the audience to talk to their neighbour and make sure that they have both understood the same thing. I do not mind what language this takes place in provided they make sure that they have understood.

Continued on next page

USE OF MOTHER TONGUE

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Students use their L¹ with each other

Instructions, Explanations. Obviously the teacher should not have a monopoly of giving instructions and explanations. When students give these, it may be more effective to do it in the L¹.

Intensive Study. When the students are involved, in groups, in the intensive study of a text, either spoken or written, then the goal of the activity is complete understanding of the text as well as a training for them to rely on their own resources and those of their peers rather than on the teacher or a dictionary. For these purposes, it is often more effective to allow discussion of the passage to take place in the L¹.

Special Teaching Techniques

Community Language Learning. CLL makes use of the students' mother tongue both as an integral part of the language learning and also in the counselling, which is a part of the approach.

Counselling. Counselling can (and, I think, should) be part of all learning, whatever approach one uses. The idea is that students should freely express their feelings, attitudes, beliefs and

frustrations, and that the students should feel that the teacher has understood them. If these are the goals, it must be obvious that counselling sessions should normally be held in the students' native language.

Conclusion

All of the above may seem to leave little room for activities in the target language, but in fact most of the suggestions are fairly brief. Moreover, if some of the ideas are implemented, many of the students' rational and emotional blocks will have been removed, and the effectiveness of the subsequent activities in the target language will be greatly enhanced. And that, of course, is what it is all about.

Note on Teacher Training

I have learnt several languages, and I have also been on the receiving end of demonstrations in the learning of other languages. Moreover, I normally include exposure to an unknown language in any teacher training course that I do, whether it is initial or in-service. My experience as a language learner and my experience in teaching languages to other English teachers lead me to the same conclusion: for the learner it is always an eye-opener. As well as (or perhaps even instead of) attending talks on the overhead projector or courses

in transformational generative grammar, what we all ought to do every five years or so is to start learning a new language. There is nothing else that can possibly give us a better idea of what it feels like to be a floundering language student.

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- For Community Language Learning in particular, and also for counselling, see:
Curran, Charles A: Counseling skills adapted to the learning of foreign languages; *B. Menninger Clinic* 25: 78-93, (1961);
Curran, Charles A: Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education, (New York, Grune and Stratton, 1972),
or, more succinctly,
Stevick, Earl W: Memory, Meaning and Method, (Newbury House, 1976.)

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GOLDEN RULES

Continued from page 25

experience with the culture which it reflects. It has been the observation of the writer of these lines that the propensity of teachers of second language and their supervisors and course designers to do the kinds of things that our two rules are meant to avoid is directly proportional to their lack of the kind of strong background and professional preparation called for in the preceding sentence.

* This article is reprinted with permission, from the May 1978 issue of the Journal of the National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE).

What controversies presently exist in teacher preparation? What does current research on language teacher preparation tell us? What is the state of the art in teacher preparation? What arguments have been mounted against traditional teacher preparation as well as competency based teacher preparation?

These and other vital questions are tackled by 26 unimpaired figures in a new collection by John F. Fanselow and Richard J. Cright

BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER PREPARATION: CURRENT PRACTICES

Edited by John F. Fanselow, TESOL General Secretary, and Richard J. Cright, TESOL Secretary in U.S.

The collection includes papers and views by Edward Anthony, Palmer Atcheson, Kathleen Blatchford, Gilbert Jarvis, B. Othman Smith, Michael Peter Strevens and others as well as milestone documents from AACTE, CAL, NASTDEC, TESOL, and NCTE.

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THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL E.S.L. CURRICULUM: LET'S TRY FOR RELEVANCE!

by Emilo G. Cortez

This article supports the position that a need exists for a re-evaluation of the elementary-school E.S.L. curriculum. Practical suggestions and considerations for devising a more relevant curriculum are presented.

Prominent educators are expressing their dissatisfaction with the existing E.S.L. curriculum in the elementary-school setting and recognizing the need for the inclusion of content-area concerns. Virginia F. Allen et al. elaborate further:

Carefully selected content from several of the subject-matter fields can be used by the E.S.L. teacher as content for language instruction. In the E.S.L. class, pupils can learn basic elements of the social studies... science... and mathematical processes...¹

John F. Haskell reflects similar sentiments.

The E.S.L. teacher *must* [emphasis mine] begin to move the student, not only into the English speaking milieu of the English class, but also into a geography class, a history class, a science class, a math class, etc.²

If the non-English-speaking child is ultimately to function satisfactorily in the monolingual English classroom and to compete academically with his/her English-speaking peers, a major portion of the E.S.L. curriculum should include the English expressions, vocabulary, grammatical structures, and concepts most frequently encountered in the monolingual English classroom. Unfortunately, many of the commercially-prepared E.S.L. programs neglect such considerations.

For a discerning evaluation of commercially-prepared E.S.L. materials, in addition to linguistic, cultural, and pedagogic factors, teachers, supervisors, and program directors should consider the question:

Do these materials realistically reflect the language and curricular concerns of the elementary-school classroom?

The teaching of reading comprises a major component of the elementary-school curriculum. Consequently, the E.S.L. curriculum should reflect similar reading-related concerns.

To begin devising relevant E.S.L. materials that reinforce or complement the school's reading program, we might ask ourselves the following questions:

1. Which reading program is being used by the pupil's classroom teacher?
2. Is the pupil's classroom teacher stressing specific reading skills? Is it possible to introduce and/or reinforce these skills in my second-language teaching? (Which aspects

of the E.S.L. program might the classroom teacher reinforce in his/her teaching?)

3. Which district-wide tests are used for assessing children's reading levels? What testing expressions might be culled from such tests and taught in the E.S.L. class? (Such expressions might include: "Circle the correct answer"; "Underline the correct response"; etc.)

Many schools utilize commercially-prepared reading programs that include colorful posters and flashcards. A familiarity with the words depicted in such visual aids can be a valuable asset to the E.S.L. pupil since such reading-related vocabulary is crucial for reading comprehension. Furthermore, words featured in reading materials that reflect specific pronunciation difficulties for the non-English-speaking child can be compiled and utilized for pronunciation practice. Consequently, pupils are afforded pronunciation practice in a more meaningful way.

An appropriate sequential presentation of reading-related vocabulary is important. Many advantages result when the young second-language learner is taught English vocabulary from stories which classmates *will be* reading. A look of self-satisfaction and confidence is often observed when an E.S.L. student successfully decodes a familiar, yet difficult, English word. On occasion, the child will receive favorable peer recognition for having unraveled a word that his or her English-speaking classmates are finding difficult.

In addition to using reading-words that pose pronunciation difficulties for students, English numbers can also be used in brief pronunciation drills. For example, for pronunciation practice involving voiceless *th*, the numbers *three*, *thirteen*, and *thirty-three* can be used effectively. Thus, the auditory exposure and oral repetition of the simple equations below can help students overcome one aspect of linguistic interference while reinforcing mathematical concepts.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 3 \times 1 = 3 & 3 + 10 = 13 \\ 3 \times 10 = 30 & 13 + 0 = 13 \\ 3 \times 11 = 33 & 3 + 3 + 7 = 13 \end{array}$$

Pedagogic dialogues are an integral part of many commercially-prepared E.S.L. programs—and rightfully so. Few language teachers would disagree with Frederick Veidt when he says:

One of the cogent and enduring manifestations of the evolved emphasis on oral activity in foreign language learning in the last decade has been the utilization of the dialogue technique.³

Although the dialogue is widely utilized and often featured in E.S.L. texts, few teaching dialogues realistically reflect the language of the English-speaking classroom or its curricular concerns.

Nevertheless, short teaching dialogues can be devised to include content-area concerns. Consider the dialogues below that subtly reinforce mathematical concepts.

A. I bought seven cookies for lunch and I ate three.

B. How many do you have left?

A. Just four.

B. Can I have one?

A. Sure.

A. Sandy, you don't look happy.

B. I had fifteen cents, and I lost a nickel at recess.

A. How much money do you have left?

B. Just a dime.

A. Maybe Deanna found your nickel. Let's ask her.

A. I had five pieces of candy, but now there's only three.

B. Maybe you lost them.

A. Now I remember; I ate two at recess.

In the dialogues presented, the students are exposed to simple subtraction in an incidental way as well as exposure to key phrases such as: "How many...?" "How much...?" Furthermore, many young children can identify with the situations depicted—which fosters interest and ultimately facilitates learning.

Science facts are featured in the two dialogues below.

A. Did you know that Mars has two moons?

B. Yes, I did.

A. Who told you?

B. Nobody—I read it.

A. Is Jupiter bigger than earth?

B. Yes, it is.

A. Are you sure?

B. Yes, I am. But let's look it up anyway.

The expenditure of effort required to write relevant dialogues will have been well spent. For there can be little doubt that the pedagogic dialogue is a potent teaching tool whose full potential has yet to be determined.

The following schema has proven helpful in appropriately adapting content-area lessons for inclusion in the E.S.L. curriculum.

1. Identify the key words in the lesson. (Many teacher's editions include the key words in the behavioral objectives.)

2. Summarize the key concepts.

3. Prepare several relevant sentences in keeping with the students' level of English proficiency.

4. Prepare and/or adapt appropriate comprehension questions concerning the gist of the lesson.

The descriptive terms: "strength," "lightness," and "transparency," as explained by Earl Stevick in *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*, are useful concepts for preparing and/or adapting E.S.L. materials. Stevick comments on "strength":

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LETTERS

Dear Editor:

Would you be so kind as to print my letter in the "letters to the editor" column of the TESOL magazine? I would like to correspond with students of Teaching English As a Foreign Language. We have a guest house for Teachers of English As a Foreign Language (visitors from USA) in Jakarta. We welcome visitors from the United States to teach at our school on weekly or monthly basis.

Thanking you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Paul Po, Director
JL. Sumatra 36
Jakarta-Pusat, Indonesia

Dear Editor:

Much has been written about teachers' attitudes in the classroom, and everyone cites the need for teachers who are compassionate and understanding. While these qualities are necessary for all teachers, they are especially so for the teacher of ESL. In the regular classroom, a problem student is often asking for help through the disruption and attention s/he demands. It seems that many students of ESL, rather than present themselves as problems to the teachers, will merely stay away from class.

This is simply a reminder that an awareness of the personal hardships of many of the members of an ESL class might enable the instructor to better understand the student whose attitudes toward English border on resentment. I have based my opinion on a personal experience in tutoring a young Vietnamese refugee.

This young man has lived in the United States since he left Viet Nam three years ago. During that time, he completed two years of high school and received his diploma. However, because he lacked a proficiency in English, he feels that his grades do not accurately reflect his academic potential. In fact, he believes he received Cs when he could have made As. I agree that his assumption is valid. He did attend some ESL classes at the YWCA, but they were insufficient preparation for his studies.

Now as a university freshman, he is enrolled in an ESL course. His problems in pronunciation and grammar are difficult to overcome, for they have been ingrained and sound normal to him. Furthermore, his rapid speech, albeit speech riddled with mispronunciations, is synonymous with correct speech. He felt insulted when I suggested that he slow down, and he insisted that he was understood by others even at this rapid pace.

In addition to the language problems, the student is understandably resentful of his high school experience. He has nurtured this resentment, as manifested in his poor attitude toward the advanced ESL class—poor class attendance and performance.

During one tutoring session, the student and I were drilling on questions relating to the family, and I made the following discoveries:

1. The student's father is still in North Viet Nam and is a prisoner.
2. The student works at a pizza parlor to help support his mother and younger brother and sister.
3. His mother knows almost no English so he speaks Vietnamese with her rather than English. English is not reinforced at home.

These situations might not be unique and certainly many other students have similar backgrounds, but the ESL teachers must constantly be aware of the special problems of their students. I would suggest the following as a mini-guide to better relations:

1. Have personal interviews with your students to find out as much about their family life and background as they wish to share, and as much as seems pertinent to good teacher/student relations.
2. Be understanding and realize that the home situation many times is very difficult.
3. Rather than assume that some "foreign" students are merely lax about class attendance, try to find out the reasons for excessive absences and discuss this with the student.
4. If a student has a problem and needs counseling, suggest a meeting with counseling services and, if necessary, set up an appointment.

Emilie Canon
Wright State University

Dear Dr. Haskell:

The Convention in Boston was stimulating and useful in many ways. But a very important issue was relegated to discussion in the halls: the economic status of our profession. We're sorry that formal discussion of this issue didn't take place, or if it did, that we didn't know about it, because it seemed to be the most frequently discussed issue there.

It seems to us that TESOL and local affiliate organizations could and should address this issue, and that they would be the most appropriate power base from which to begin the attempt to improve our situation.

How might we begin? Assessing conditions in our profession seems like both a logical starting point and something which TESOL could carry out. An "Employment Survey" was distributed at the convention: what has been done with the results of that questionnaire? Could they be published in the *TESOL Quarterly* or *TESOL Newsletter*? Or could the survey itself be refined, if necessary, and published in the TESOL and local affiliate publications, with the results to be analyzed and published there? And what about the possibility of TESOL offering its members group health insurance? Is it possible that those of us who get no benefits from our employers and are now paying individual rates for insurance could get better coverage and/or better rates by organizing a group through TESOL (or through local affiliates)?

And what then? We're not sure, but we would certainly hope that we can accomplish more by working together and using the strength of our organization than by continuing individually to endure low status, low pay, few or no benefits, inadequate or

non-existent cost-of-living raises, little or no job security, etc.

Can't we get started now to work toward improved conditions? Can TESOL play a role? We hope so. For no amount of convention disseminating, discussing or sharing can compensate for the fact that many dedicated ESOL teachers simply cannot afford to continue teaching.

Very truly yours,

Margaret Stanek and Paul Krueger
Northeastern University
Margot Valdivia,
Susan Vik, and Mary Christie
Boston University

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ESL CURRICULUM

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Concern about strength will lead to questions such as:

Is the content relevant to the present and likely future needs of the trainees?

Does the textbook provide for the tools, both in vocabulary and in structure, that students will need in order to reach whatever goal has been set?

Are the materials authentic both linguistically and culturally?

The quality of "lightness" is a measure of the ease with which a lesson can be learned. In other words, light materials are not excessively difficult, long, or frustrating.

"Transparency" refers to a lesson's clarity; i.e., Does the student readily perceive the teaching point and its relationship to other items previously learned?

In closing, it is suggested that whenever possible, the E.S.L. teacher and the classroom teacher should apprise one another as to the salient specifics of their respective curricula. In this way, both instructional programs may truly complement one another. For without a relevant and effectively implemented elementary-school E.S.L. curriculum, the non-English-speaking child has little chance of attaining academic success in the mainstream culture.

¹ Virginia F. Allen et al., "A Memo: Educating Children with Limited English," *Educating Personnel for Bilingual Settings: Present and Future* (Philadelphia, Pa.: M.E.R.I.T. Center, Temple University, 1979), pp. 81-82.

² John F. Haskell, "'Out of the Closet' and Into the School," *TESOL Newsletter* (April, 1978), p. 3.

³ Frederick P. Veidt, "The Dialogue: An Aid to Oral Production in Beginning Language Study," *Modern Language Journal* (January-February, 1973), p. 3.

⁴ Earl W. Stevick, *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons* (Washington, D.C.: Foreign Service Institute, 1971), p. 46.

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TESOL NEWSLETTER

Vol. XIII No. 5

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

October 1979



TESOL Summer Meeting at UCLA, July 13-14.

REPORT FROM THE TESOL SUMMER MEETING

It was the first, hopefully not the last. The TESOL Summer Meeting, as it was dubbed, held in conjunction with the first TESOL Summer Institute, which was also meeting on the UCLA campus, was reminiscent of smaller ESL (TESL/ TESOL) meetings in the past—good and bad. It was nice, for example, to have manageable numbers of attendees, which meant a chance to actually carry on a sustained conversation of more than two sentences with someone. It was good to be able to leisurely wander through the exhibits area, unrushed by sixteen meetings or papers or workshops that one was obliged to also get to; to have time to speak to publishers representatives and authors about their books; to meet speakers and bigwigs and friends over coffee.

The setting was spectacular, and from the beginning, with President Ruth Crymes' informal evening of wine and cheese and song, one could feel how relaxed and comfortable the next two days would be. Papers ran the expected gamut from pedantic, to realistic, boring, if not useless, to practical. They were, on the whole, mercifully short—the good and the bad.

The plenary sessions were professional,

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NEW LEGISLATION IN CALIFORNIA: TREND FOR U.S.?

"The assumption in bilingual education is that the [Spanish surnamed language learner's] L¹ (primary language) is the student's dominant language. But this is often not so!" say Marina Burt Heidi Dulay.

In some school districts, students who are limited English speakers (LES) are still less proficient in speaking their primary (home) language. These children

UPDATE ON ESL AND BILINGUAL TEACHER CERTIFICATION

by Gina Cantoni Harvey
University of Northern Arizona

The need for certifying teachers in the fields of Bilingual Education and English as a Second Language (ESL) is being recognized by a growing number of states. On October 9, 1978, I mailed out a request for information to the State Departments of Education of each state and U.S. Territory, and as of this date, April 20, 1979, I have received replies from all 55 (four by phone only, with confirming letters promised). The request was so worded as to encourage

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are, under current law, allowed to be taught through their weaker language simply because proficiency in the home language was not determined. Clearly, this group of children has very special language needs.

Marina Burt and Heidi Dulay of Bloomsbury West, a non-profit San Francisco based educational consulting firm, have been working very closely with California Assemblyman Richard Alatorre (D-LA) on a bill (AB690) which provides a more comprehensive bilingual program for non-English speakers (NES) and limited English speakers (LES), through a series of program options, than present bilingual legislation provides.

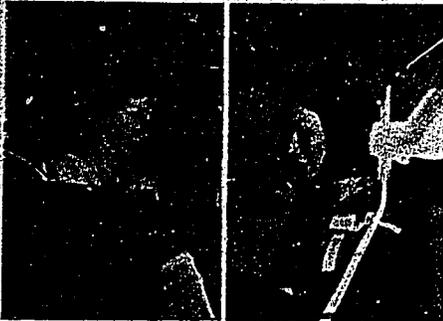
In their plenary presentation at the TESOL Summer Meeting held at UCLA, July 13-14, they outlined their proposal in detail and described the research they had done which led them to this plan.

They began by stating that in California, Hispanic students make up over 80 percent of the language minority students in the state. ESL teachers are not officially recognized (certified) and this often results in bilingual programs in

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SUMMER MEETING

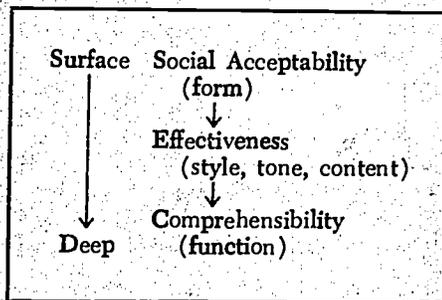
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Marina Burt Heidi Dulay

current, and comprehensive. Marina Burt and Heidi Dulay, ESL consultants from Bloomsbury West, San Francisco, reported on legislation presently being considered by the California legislature which will certainly affect the status of ESL teachers in California, and which raises interesting questions regarding current practices in bilingual education. The importance of this legislation is, as was Proposition 13 on property taxes, potentially a model for other states to follow. Burt and Dulay found that many students enrolled in bilingual programs in the state of California, though limited in English ability were better in English than in their home (primary) language, while others, who even though Spanish surnamed, spoke little or no Spanish at all. Their proposed legislation provides for bilingual program options for these students as well as special training for what Burt and Dulay call "Extended English Teachers." *Editor's note: For further information on this Legislation see the article in this issue entitled "New California Legislation: Trend for U.S.?"*

The second plenary speaker was Roger Shuy of Georgetown University and the Center for Applied Linguistics who spoke on "Sociolinguistics in the Classroom." His main emphasis was that the teacher must move from the form (the surface area of language) to the function (the deeper, universal area) of language. (See the diagram below).



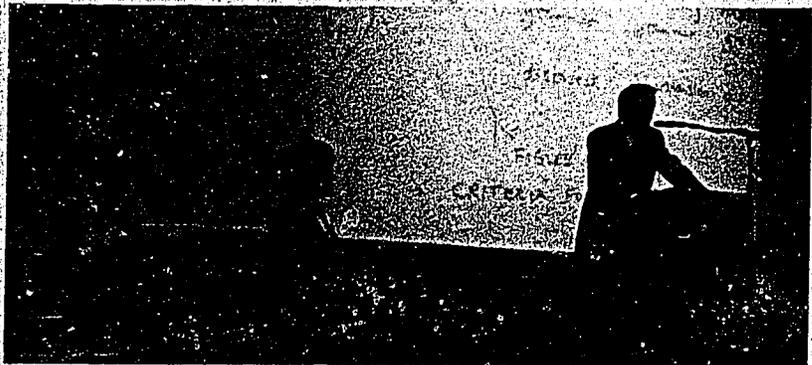
Dr. Shuy listed seven attitudes sociolinguistic researchers and teachers need to take in order to view the learner correctly. (1) While the learner looks

forward in his approach to language learning with an openness to acquiring new skills and information, the teacher/researcher tends to look backward from the accumulated knowledge about language, and teach it from that perspective. The implication being that new insights into classroom and learning practices might be better made by looking at language from the point of view of the learner. (2) Children seem to learn inductively (reasoning from specific information to infer general rules) rather than deductively (inferring specific information from a proven general rule). While teachers and researchers generally evaluate what is visible and accountable as a measure of knowledge they must adopt the learners perspective. As a

with a "willingness to play, to mess around with language." Shuy quoted Wordsworth in this regard;

... the joy of babbling and noise making
that children bring to school—
where silence is the rule.

(5) Shuy suggested that a syllabus, for example, was a "menu" from which a teacher who knew the student could select; that there has been for too long a stress on the "delivery of education" rather than the content; that there is a "natural loss of awareness" because education tends to unify and make things similar resulting in a loss of redundancy clues (those recurring and varied signals the speaker provides contextually



Bill Norris, Summer Meeting Chairman, Ruth Crymes, TESOL President and Roger Shuy.

practical example Shuy mentioned journal writing—the teacher response to the student's journal should ignore the form of the student's writing, and write any responses in correct forms rather than making corrections.

(3) Shuy stated that the child/learner believes there is a system in the world and that it can be learned. This system is learned outside the school while information (rules) about language (metalinguage) are learned (or taught) in the schools. He suggested that by our focusing on the surface (form) we undermine the functions of language in the mind of the learner. Learners do not need to be accurate, they need to know how to estimate, to make a reasonable generalization. (4) Children come to school

to lessen the chance of a missed message) which are necessary in the larger language context. When we teach small "clumps" of language these signals which occur naturally in larger contexts are lost. (6) Teachers tend to be unable to distinguish teaching from learning, replacing growth with the acquisition of facts. In evaluating, for example, we test only the surface grammar, only what is wrong rather than a more wholistic evaluation of language ability. Fluency too often means quantity. (7) The developmental stages of a child's growth in his acquisition of language, in fact, seems to be less direct than previously assumed. "We have perhaps ignored or underestimated in the human potential a multiphasic possibility." *Continued on next page*



CALIFORNIA LEGISLATION

Continued from page 1

which either little or no English is taught or in which English is taught by teachers who have no training in TESL (since only certified bilingual teachers may teach in bilingual programs). Animosity towards ESL by bilingual teachers seems to be caused because bilingual teachers equate ESL with a method of teaching English (i.e., the audiolingual method of the 50's).

The bill which Burt and Dulay have drafted in dealing with these problems, recognizes that (1) children should be "taught in the language they understand best," (2) teaching English requires special skills, and (3) the learning experience should be natural" (i.e., involve natural communication rather than mechanical textbook drills and exercises).

ESEA Title VII identifies children eligible for bilingual programs by testing in English—oral, reading, and writing skills. Since testing in the primary (home) language for speaking, reading, and writing is not required, many children will be taught reading and writing in their "primary language" when in fact they may have less ability to read and write in the primary language than they do in English. Burt and Dulay in research recently done for the California State Board of Education found that significant numbers of the students tested were Limited English Dominant as opposed to Primary Language Dominant. ("Limited English dominant students are those who are classified as limited English proficient by the given English proficiency test and who score on a corresponding Spanish proficiency test at least one full level lower in Spanish than English.) In the Riverside School District, of the nearly 800 limited English speaking students enrolled in bilingual programs 38 percent were found to have *no Spanish* while another 22 percent had limited ability in Spanish. In Northern California there are even fewer limited English proficient children who are more proficient in Spanish than in English. Mount Pleasant School District, for example, reports that only 6% of the limited English speaking students are Spanish dominant; 78% are English dominant and the rest are equally limited in both languages. Clearly, for these students, "teaching math and reading through a primary language over which they exhibit less control than they do over English is a questionable practice," say Dulay and Burt.

Under the Alatorre bill, the limited English proficient (LEP) and the non English proficient (NEP) student popu-

lation would be divided into two groups: those who, when given a test of proficiency in English and another language show greater proficiency in the primary language; and those who are limited English dominant, meaning that when tested they show greater proficiency in English than in the primary language. For the latter students, the level of English proficiency demonstrated is still lower, however, than would be expected from a native English speaker of the same age or grade.

The Alatorre bill calls for three basic bilingual curricula—*core*, *partial bilingual*, and *extended English*, depending on the student's relative proficiency in English and the other language. The *core bilingual curriculum* recommended for Spanish dominant or other language dominant students, would provide instruction in basic subjects and academic skills in the primary language, instruction in English as a second language, and non-academic subjects such as art, music and gym, in English.

For limited English Dominant students two options are available: the "*partial bilingual*" curriculum and The *extended English curriculum*. The partial bilingual curriculum would teach the basic skills in English, and contain a strong ESL component. Students would also have the opportunity to develop their primary language. Research is needed to determine what methods would be best in the primary language component, since for some the "home" language may be a second language; some may be at a lower level of ability or even illiterate in their "home" language because of limited use or lack of education; or they may be speakers of a nonstandard dialect which is not provided for in the core bilingual program. Spanish as a second language (SSL) methods might be appropriate. The *extended English* curriculum would teach basics skills in English, with a strong English as a second-language component. This curriculum would be available for limited English dominant students. It would also be available at the secondary level for primary language dominant students who test higher in their L¹ than the bilingual program offers. This is particularly true of Chinese, and Tagalog speaking students, for example, who come at, say, an 8th grade level or above and are already doing above that in school in their L¹. It would also be available for students whose language is not provided for in a core bilingual program.

Put simply, as at present all available options for limited English speakers are bilingual, and only bilingual teachers are certifiable, the new legislation would provide for curriculum options based on documented student need and culturally aware trained language specialists for the English dominant LEP students.

(The "Extended English Teacher" as Burt and Dulay have labeled her/him, would not be certified (per se) but the state licensing commission would set requirements for training which could occur in a university program or through the school district.)

"The bill is bitterly opposed by elements of the bilingual establishment" according to the *Sacramento BEE*, "who argue that it will weaken the program and that it represents only a cover for an attempt to create jobs for English-speaking teachers at the expense of bilingual teachers. It is also argued that the bill reflects bias against minorities and particularly against Chicanos.

"The latter argument is simply wrong; there can be no greater form of discrimination than a rule requiring a child to take a test in a language he doesn't speak. The other argument is irrelevant, a claim overwhelmed by the absurdity of the situation it seeks to perpetuate. If the state board's data are correct—and other sources seem to confirm that—then nothing would make more sense than to limit the program to those who really need it and to exclude those who, common sense suggests, will do far better if they are allowed and encouraged to operate in English. The Alatorre bill merely moves toward what bilingual education was supposed to have provided in the first place: giving children a chance to learn in the language they know best and, beyond that, to learn English as fast as possible."

UP-DATE:

All the provisions of AB690 have been incorporated into Senate Bill 220, which was passed out of the California State Senate by a vote of 26-0 on September 14, 1979. The State Assembly will review the measure in January, 1980 and passage is expected. SB220 allows school districts to choose between continuing with the provisions of current law or opt for the more flexible and responsive program described here.

Follow-up the 1980

T.E.S.O.L. Conference

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T.E.A.L.

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Canada

March 13, 14, 15, 1980.



ON BEING A QUESTIONABLE ESL TEACHER

By Marilyn Aledort
Adelphi University

Gary Bevington's article "On Being a Negative ESL Teacher," in the TESOL Newsletter of April, 1979, provoked a lot of thought. Two of the most intriguing topics for theoretical linguists and ESL teachers have been (1) language universals—that is, those grammatical and semantic categories many or most natural languages have in common, and (2) language anomalies—those structures that appear to be idiosyncratic and unique to a language and which not only defy word-by-word translation but are elusive to reasoned analysis as well. They simply are, and as such they must be taught and they must be learned. Indeed, anomalous forms often express the richest part of a language and the spirit and imagination of those born into its linguistic community.

We need not linger here over language universals, although they will no doubt continue to be the subject of countless journal articles to come. Cognate forms, whatever their nature, serve to facilitate and expedite our work as language teachers and learners. It is the vexed and vexing questions (in this case, negative questions) of how to find strategies for teaching negation, especially when it is combined with interrogation, that demand our energy and attention. The problem is complex, not because negation is "almost 'weird'" in English, but because it works both a structural and semantic hardship on the learner when it is combined, as it so often is, with interrogation. And this is true even when the ESL learner has a parallel form in his own tongue.

If one examines two of the most familiar and closely related languages of the Indo-European group heard and spoken in the United States, for example French and Spanish, is not each of these unique in its system of negation? Each requires a specific order and number of negative elements and each shifts in its own unique way to formulate questions. Where English may be a species of linguistic odd-man-out in its system of auxiliary verbs, without which the ESL student can frame neither negative statements nor questions.

Experience in the ESL classroom over a long period of time leads me to contend that it is negative interrogation, not negation in itself, that constitutes a major problem for teacher and learner. To frame a yes/no question, the evolution of the English language has fixed the auxiliary verbs (is, are, was, were, do, does, did, can etc.) right up front in initial position, a structural requirement difficult to master for most Eng-

lish learners. Having to change the auxiliary into its negative form (using another English peculiarity, the contraction) seems to compound the difficulty. Furthermore, negative questions are most often negative in the grammatical sense only; semantically they cover a very wide range of meanings. Consider the following: (1) Isn't she beautiful? (2) Aren't they here yet? (3) Aren't you going to the game? (4) Won't you have a little more wine? (5) Can't you stay a little longer? (6) Wouldn't you consider marrying him?

Even allowing for various interpretations, each of the sentences is uniquely loaded as to message and purpose. Sentence (1) is not only not negative, it is not even a question. It is what we say when we need to express enthusiastic approval and admiration. (2) and (3) could very well indicate 'negative' emotions such as disappointment, frustrated expectation, annoyance, or even anxiety, but not necessarily so. (3) could signify mild surprise or idle curiosity. (4) expresses hospitality or politeness (unless, of course, the motive is ulterior), and (5) is an out-an-out plea. (6) appears to seek confirmation or corroboration of an idea in the questioner's mind, a common function of negative questions.

Bevington suggests that negation is so complex in English that the topic "must be divided into manageable-sized 'packages' . . . and integrated into other material the student is being taught." I see no fault with the "systematic 'layering-on' approach" he outlines in his article, but I would attempt to assemble interrogative 'packages' made up of sentences like the above, and others that present special communicative difficulties, both structurally and semantically. These would probably have to be reserved for intermediate or even advanced level students, to whom it would be possible and profitable to indicate the various psycholinguistic purposes and exigencies they serve.

It is also true, as Bevington points out, citing Akiyama (1976) that in Japanese (and in other modern languages as well) the answer to the negative question "Aren't you going?" would be either "No, I am going," indicating disagreement with the questioner, or "Yes, I am not going," indicating agreement with the negative idea in the questioner's mind. As complicated as this is in terms of comparative linguistics (psycho-linguistics really), it could also be interpreted as a translation problem. The question could be translated into English as "Do you mean you're *not* going?" Then the answer would offer the same possibilities in English as it does in Japanese: No (you're wrong), I *am* going, or Yes (you're correct), I'm *not* going.

The pattern of Japanese addresses itself to the truth or falsity of the questioner's assumption, rather than to the fact or proposition that someone either is or is not going somewhere, or planning to do something. This is sometimes the case in English too but, in general, regardless of the pattern of the student's own language, he or she must learn that the English question "Aren't you going?" follows the pattern of all other yes/no questions; that is to say, it demands either an affirmative "Yes, I am," or a negative "No, I'm not," addressing the truth about the respondent's future behavior, not reflecting on the questioner's state of mind.

As professional teachers we are constrained to separate for our students those segments of language that can be learned or memorized by the application of a rule or paradigm, e.g. word order of statements and questions, possessive case, the negative/affirmative switch on statements using tag questions, etc. Unfortunately, for the learner at least, discourse makes copious use of those vast areas of language (idioms for instance) which must be learned and mastered by dint of every strategy the learner can summon—ears, wits, humor and creative imagination. We owe it to our students to help them make semantic 'rules' and categories and then offer them ample opportunity for application and practice. Our aim should be to make effective as well as competent communicators of them.

On the question of another English anomaly, the double negative, I suggest that we stick to our guns, academically if not socially, and teach negation as rule-governed: that is, one negative element to a clause when the verb is negative. Of course, there are exceptions, arising from previous discourse and semantic clarification, but these are relatively rare. "I didn't say nobody won" is the example Bevington chooses to demonstrate how we break our own taboos. But this sentence actually has two clause elements and could be uttered or written as "I didn't say that nobody won." or "I didn't say, 'Nobody won.'" We do not respond to this kind of sentence, or to the "Not only did he not . . ." variety of compounded negation, as we do to "I didn't hear nothing" or "Don't give me no back talk." or "He ain't got no job", even though, clearly, we understand their meanings and even accept the fact that although they are considered non-standard, they are ubiquitously used.

It can be pointed out to advanced students that not all native speakers use grammatical English, a phenomenon not unheard of in their own speech communities, and that responses to semantically governed categories may also

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A PRELIMINARY REPORT ON AN ESL EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS SURVEY

Linda Moussouris & Daphne Mackey

At the TESOL Convention in March, a survey on ESL employment conditions was distributed by a group of ESL instructors from a Boston-area university. Prompted by concern about employment conditions in our field, we hoped to use the survey we had developed as a vehicle for beginning a discussion within the organization about salaries, benefits, job security and working conditions.

This seemed to us an opportune time to raise these issues in view of the recent increases in the number of foreign students entering U.S. academic institutions for technical training and ESL instruction. These enrollments are expected to continue to grow, with the economic expansion of the petro-countries and our newly cordial relations with China. Also, as we Americans experience economic difficulties at home, students from countries with relatively strong economies (i.e., Japan) are coming here for training—while our own enrollments of American college students are expected to decline. In addition to these increases in foreign student enrollment in higher education, the nation's non-English-speaking minorities are a rapidly expanding population requiring the services of bilingual programs in the public schools.

Outlined below is a brief summary of our findings within the major job categories of public schools, universities, junior and community colleges, adult education, and private language schools.

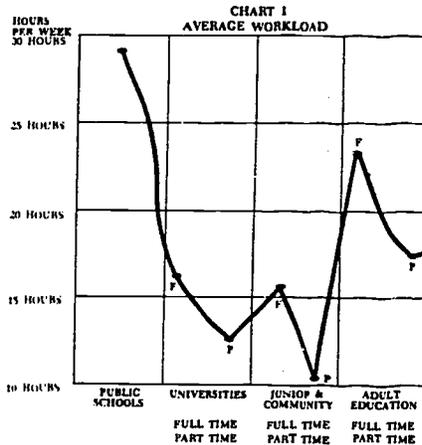
Analysis of Preliminary Results

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

We received 45 responses from public school teachers, 14 of whom were administrators and one of whom were part-time teachers. As was to be expected, we found that this group of respondents experienced significantly better employment conditions than the respondents in the other categories in terms of job security, salaries, benefits (i.e., health and life insurance, pension plans, maternity and sick leave). However, their average teaching load per week was 29½ hours, a figure almost seven hours greater than the next highest category (see Chart 1).

The public school administrators' salaries ranged from \$13,000 to \$30,000, with an average of \$19,500 (see Chart 2). The salaries for full-time teachers ranged from \$10,000 to \$22,000 (averaging \$15,680) and seemed to correlate with experience in the field, indicating an established salary increment schedule. All but 6 of these teachers described

themselves as "permanent" employees of their school systems. Full-time teachers with masters' degrees who were union members averaged \$17,340 per year, whereas their non-union counterparts received an average salary of \$13,005. Thirty-four of the public school respondents were represented by unions; this was the highest proportion of union membership in any of the groups examined.



UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

The largest category of respondents, university teachers, presented some interesting contrasts to the public school employees. In addition to 7 administrators, this group contained 27 full-time instructors and 24 part-time teachers. It included 5 faculty members and 1 administrator in tenured or tenure-track positions; the latter group contained all 3 of the union members among university respondents. Although approximately 27% of all respondents in this category stated that their jobs were "permanent", 63% of these employees also indicated that continued employment was dependent on the number of students enrolled in their programs.

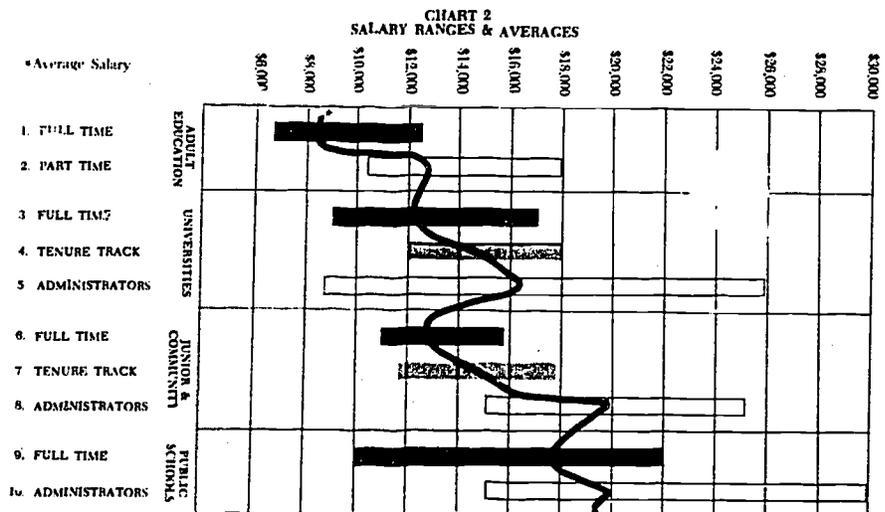
We did not find the provision of bene-

fits—health insurance, pension plan, sick leave—to be quite so common among university faculty as it had been among public school employees (11 of the latter group even had paid maternity leave available to them). While university administrators, tenured/tenure-track faculty and most full-time faculty received benefits, all but one of the part-time instructors did *not* (although 3 of them had health insurance). Salaries for university administrators ranged from \$8300 to \$28,000, with an average salary of \$16,560 (see Chart 2). The salaries of tenured/tenure track faculty ranged from \$12,000 to \$18,000, averaging \$15,750. The salaries of the remaining full-time faculty ranged from \$9000 to \$17,000, with an average of \$12,450.

The workload of part-time university instructors varied from 5 to 25 hours—bringing into question the definition of "part-time". They were paid by the hour, course, quarter and semester; these discrepancies made it difficult to analyze pay scales. However, the hourly rate ranged from \$9 to \$22 per hour; salaries for semesters and quarters varied from \$2000 to \$3000 (based on a 15-hour week).

For this category, it was difficult to assess the relationship between level of education attained and salary or position. Although those in administration attained the highest salary level, faculty in tenured/tenure-track positions showed the highest educational level. The highest paid faculty were those teaching TESL rather than ESL; all of these teachers had Ph.D's. Full-time faculty appeared somewhat better educated than those in part-time positions, as several of the latter were working toward degrees. Each of the four sub-categories—administration, tenured faculty, and full- and part-time instructors—included 2 Ph.D's!

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JUNIOR AND COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Although the total number of returns from junior and community college respondents was small (17), the group as a whole differed in some significant ways from the previous two larger categories. The majority of respondents were union members, including 2 out of 3 administrators and 8 out of 10 full-time instructors—5 of whom also occupied tenured/tenure-track positions. Most of these respondents received benefits. Of the 5 part-time instructors in this group, one person received benefits and was also represented by a union.

Faculty in tenured or tenure-track positions averaged salaries of \$15,000 per year; other full-time faculty averaged \$13,400. We could not arrive at an average figure for part-time instructors. An interesting finding that emerged from our analysis of this small sample was that there appeared to be no significant differences in the educational levels of the respondents in each of the 4 subcategories at this level. Administrators, full-time faculty (tenured and non-tenured) and part-time faculty all included people with masters' degrees and ABD's ("All-but-dissertation"). The percentage of ABD's among the part-time instructors was actually somewhat higher than that found in the other subcategories. Because of the size of our sample, this issue should be examined further.

As this category presents a mixed population of unionized and non-union faculty (a phenomenon which did not occur to the same extent in the other categories), an investigation of the relationship between unionization and employment conditions might prove fruitful at this level. Another question raised by analysis of this sample is whether there are significant differences in employment conditions at the largely private junior colleges and the state-financed community colleges.

ADULT EDUCATION

Our sample was also small in the area of adult education. Of 18 respondents, 7 occupied administrative positions. Their average salary was \$13,100 per year, and most of them received benefits. The high salary (\$26,000) and generous benefits accorded one Canadian administrator (with B.A. only) are so out of line with the employment conditions reported by her American counterparts, that the need for more information on the Canadian system of adult education seems clear.

Three-fourths of the teachers in this category were part-time workers. They were paid hourly wages, averaging \$11 an hour, and carried an average teaching load of 17½ hours. None of the

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1. Age _____ Sex _____
2. Name of Program _____
3. Institution _____
4. Institutional subdivision or unit with which your program is affiliated _____
5. I work at a
 - a. university _____
 - b. community or junior college _____
 - c. adult education program _____
 - d. private language school _____
 - e. business-sponsored program _____
 - f. public school _____
6. I teach
 - a. ESL _____
 - b. TESL _____
 - c. ESL & TESL _____
 - d. Bilingual _____
7. The title of my position is _____
8. I have been in this position for _____ years.
9. I teach _____ hours per week.
10. My position is considered
 - a. part-time _____
 - b. full-time _____
11. I am paid \$ _____ hourly
\$ _____ yearly
\$ _____ per semester
12. I have been teaching in my present field for _____ years.
13. Educational Background:
 - a. Associate Degree _____
 - b. BA _____
 - c. M.A. _____
 - d. M.Ed. _____
 - e. CAGS _____
 - f. Ph.D. _____

Employment Conditions

14. My position is
 - a. temporary _____
 - b. permanent _____
 - c. tenured _____
 - d. non-tenured _____
 - e. tenured track _____
 - f. non-tenured track _____
15. Contracts:
 - a. no contract _____
 - b. letter of appointment _____
 - c. contract, 1-year basis _____
 - d. contract, semester-basis _____
 - e. other _____
16. Continued employment is contingent on
 - a. availability of funding _____
 - b. availability of students _____
 - c. application for grants _____
 - d. other _____
17. I am represented by a union. Yes _____ No _____
18. Are there clear-cut written guidelines for starting salaries in your program? Yes _____ No _____
19. Are starting salaries based on
 - a. educational background _____
 - b. number of years teaching ESL _____
 - c. other teaching experience _____
 - d. publications _____
 - e. other _____
20. Are there clear-cut guidelines for salary increases in your program? Yes _____ No _____
21. Are they based on
 - a. predetermined step increases _____
 - b. cost of living _____
 - c. merit
 1. publication _____
 2. student evaluation _____
 3. duties in addition to teaching _____
 4. class observations _____
 5. self-evaluation _____
 6. length of time in program _____
 7. other _____

Continued on next page

22. Duties other than teaching include	<i>paid</i>	<i>unpaid</i>
a. teachers' meetings _____	_____	_____
b. professional development meetings & activities _____	_____	_____
c. conferences with students outside class hours _____	_____	_____
d. curriculum development _____	_____	_____
e. group testing for class placement & registration _____	_____	_____
f. administrative functions unrelated to teaching _____	_____	_____
g. field trips outside class hours _____	_____	_____
h. student advising & counseling _____	_____	_____

Support Services

23. Textbooks
- Your program provides textbooks for students _____
 - Your program expects students to purchase own texts _____
 - There are no texts: teachers are expected to provide learning materials _____
24. Teacher texts — program provides free copies Yes _____ No _____
25. Your program provides free access to
- films _____
 - audio-visual equipment _____
 - tapes, records _____
 - speakers & outside resource people _____
26. Your program provides teachers with support services
- secretarial help _____
 - access to counseling staff for class related matters _____
 - duplicating facilities _____
27. Professional support — your program provides
- curriculum guidelines _____
 - resource library of
 - texts _____
 - sample tests _____
 - teacher-prepared materials _____
 - journals, papers, reports _____
 - support for professional sharing of ideas and team-teaching Yes _____ No _____

28. Teachers have input into program decisions	Yes _____	No _____
Benefits	Yes	No
29. I receive life insurance from the program.	_____	_____
30. I receive health insurance from my program	_____	_____
What percentage does the program pay for? _____		
31. My health insurance plan is		
a. Blue Cross-Blue Shield _____		
b. Blue Cross-Blue Shield Major Medical _____		
c. Health Maintenance organization _____		
d. other _____		
32. I have paid sick days.	_____	_____
How many per year? _____		
33. Are your sick days cumulative?	_____	_____
34. Are you allowed personal days?	_____	_____
How many per year? _____		
35. Substitutes are paid for by your program.	_____	_____
How many times per year? _____		
36. Who finds your substitute?		
You _____ Administration _____		
37. There are maternity leaves of absence.		
Paid _____ Unpaid _____		
38. I receive release time for conferences and professional meetings	_____	_____
a. if I attend _____		
b. if I present _____		
39. Do you receive compensation for		
a. time away _____		
b. conference fees _____		
c. travel expenses _____		
d. room & board _____		
40. I receive vouchers for courses, tuition waivers, or direct payment for same.	_____	_____
41. I have a pension plan through my job.	_____	_____
a. social security _____		
b. pension program _____		
c. other _____		

Other _____

part-time teachers received benefits. On the other hand, the 4 full-time teachers did have them (with one exception). They taught an average of 22.75 hours per week.

Only a small number of people in this category had union representation. There appeared to be no correlation between the status of position held and educational level or experience. The majority of respondents in adult education stated that continued employment was contingent on the availability of funding.

OTHER CATEGORIES

A fifth category, private schools, yielded fewer responses than had the previous categories. The respondents proved to be a diverse group, working for parochial and private elementary and high schools, government-sponsored programs for Native Americans, the United Nations and some overseas programs. The paucity of responses coupled with the diversity of the programs surveyed make any meaningful analysis impossible without additional data collection. This also held true for the sixth category, business-sponsored programs.

An unforeseen category developed consisting of teachers who hold two or more jobs in the field. Like ESL teachers employed in private school programs, this group showed considerable diversity. It included administrators, teachers working in public school and adult education programs, and instructors piecing together part-time jobs in higher education. It would be interesting to know how prevalent this practice is of working up to 25 hours per week at several jobs.

And yet we feel that our limited investigation has provided some indication as to the direction future research in this area might take. In attempting a more extensive analysis of employment conditions, we would raise the following questions: 1) What determines full- or part-time instructional status? What are the ramifications of each of these designations in terms of hours, benefits provision and employment conditions? 2) Are there significant differences in employment conditions in ESL at public and private institutions of higher education? Are there regional variations? 3) How do employment conditions for ESL teachers compare to conditions encountered by their counterparts in related fields? Are there significant differences in access to tenure tracks—and how does the ESL teacher with a master's degree fit into a tenure track? 4) Do union-represented teachers in fact enjoy better employment conditions than their non-union counterparts? 5) What effects have increasing foreign student enrollments and the prolifera-

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tion of bilingual programs had on conditions in the field? By making our survey available to interested readers, we hope to motivate them to begin their own investigations. TESOL Affiliates interested in these issues could conceivably mount their own efforts; we will gladly make our survey available to them for inspiration, reproduction or any other use they can put it to. If teachers are interested in looking into conditions in their local areas—within their school systems or at their colleges—we will also oblige them with copies of the survey for reproduction and distribution to colleagues and friends. In addition, individuals can also write for the survey and return the completed form to us, but we would urge them to distribute it to others as well.

We hope that groups undertaking an effort similar to ours will send us a summary of their results. A concerted effort on the part of many individual teachers will substantially increase our knowledge about working conditions in our field and provide a base for future action.

Responses may be sent to Linda Moussouris and Daphne Mackey, c/o MATSOL, Box 38, Babson Park, Massachusetts 02157.

A QUESTIONABLE ESL TEACHER

Continued from page 11

vary widely. A common example of a troublesome form is the locution "Would you mind. . . (closing the window)". Grammatically, the appropriate response should take a negative form. However, many native American children, and some adults as well, either do not know the appropriate response or do not feel comfortable answering negatively. As a result, one hears "Yes, of course." or "Certainly." or "Okay." It is entirely possible that, over time, the affirmative answer might win out. Nevertheless, just as we teach foreign students that the expression "Would you mind . . ." takes the gerund form in the verb that follows, it is our responsibility to instruct them in the polite and appropriate response, even though native speakers may break the rules.

As Bevington suggests, these discussions (and even those in our best ESL texts) only scratch the surface. If we are to enlighten ourselves and our students, encouraging them to try out new modes of thought and expression, we must stress the idea that language is a product of human creativity and imagination, more varied and various than any of the arts or sciences dependent upon language for information and elucidation.

Editor's Note: The tables by M. Akiyama referred to above from the paper "Negative Questions in Young Children" printed along with the Bevington article in the April 1979 issue of the TN were added by the editor.

NEW GROUP INSURANCE PROGRAM FOR TESOL MEMBERS

As part of TESOL's commitment to providing valuable membership services, a comprehensive program of group insurance is now available. This TESOL-sponsored insurance program was approved after thorough study and investigation. It came about in response to a growing number of requests received by TESOL's central office for association-sponsored group insurance benefits.

The program includes Plans for term life insurance, a supplemental hospital insurance, and disability income insurance.

The strength of buying as a group now enables TESOL members to enjoy sensible, comprehensive protection at an affordable cost. Group insurance through TESOL is especially beneficial to those members who receive no insurance benefits through their employers, of who prefer more complete coverage than what they now have.

The TESOL-approved program of group insurance is currently sponsored by over ten other educational associations and societies. The success of the program is due largely to the enthusiastic support it receives from thousands of education professionals.

Albert H. Wohlers & Co., the group insurance administrator, is responsible for all correspondence, claims service and billing, and serves as a direct liaison between TESOL members and the insurance companies. This arrangement assures members fast, personalized service. The Wohlers Company has specialized in association-sponsored group insurance for a quarter of a century, and is recognized as a leader in the field.

"The three plans presently available to TESOL members offer excellent coverage at reasonable group rates," said Albert H. Wohlers, President of the firm. "We are proud to be of service to TESOL and its members."

A special offer for TESOL Group Term Life Insurance will launch the new program this fall. During the Charter Enrollment Period, all TESOL members will be guaranteed \$11,000 of term life insurance if they are under age 55, have been actively working for the past 90 days, and not hospitalized during the past six months. Members should watch their mail for details.

For now, life, hospital and disability insurance are the only Plans included in the TESOL-sponsored insurance program, although the program may be expanded to accommodate the growing needs of members.

For example, some TESOL members have requested a plan for comprehensive medical coverage. Such a plan could be developed if enough members expressed a desire for it.

This newsletter contains a survey asking members for specific information on their hospitalization needs. The results will help determine whether comprehensive medical insurance is feasible at this time. Interested members are encouraged to complete the survey and return it to the Insurance Administrator for evaluation.

Please direct all questions on TESOL group insurance to the Insurance Administrator, Albert H. Wohlers & Co., GROUP INSURANCE PLANS, 1500 Higgins Road, Park Ridge, Illinois 60068.

Xerox this form and mail

MEMBERSHIP OPINION SURVEY

A number of members have asked TESOL to develop a group hospitalization and/or major medical insurance plan to be offered to the membership on an optional participation basis. Before the central office undertakes this project, we would like an expression of interest for this type of service by the entire membership. Please answer the following questions and return them to our insurance administrator for review, analysis and tabulations.

- 1) Are you currently covered by a hospitalization or major medical insurance plan? Yes No
 - a) If so, is it provided by an employer or do you purchase it on an individual basis? _____
- 2) Would you be interested in considering similar coverage through TESOL? Yes No
- 3) What does your current hospitalization or major medical insurance coverage cost annually? _____
- 4) What insurance company or service organization currently provides you with this coverage? _____

Please return this Membership Opinion Survey to TESOL Group Insurance Plans, Albert H. Wohlers & Co., Administrator, 1500 Higgins Road, Park Ridge, Illinois 60068.

IT WORKS

By Greg Larkin
Brigham Young University

ROLE PLAYING GRAMMAR

Many English teachers have regularly used role playing in literature classes, having the students act out the various characters and scenes they are reading about. In basic composition classes, role playing is often effectively used to illustrate rhetorical modes such as comparison-contrast, process, classification, etc. But in adult level ESL classes, where all too often students tend to find the content of the materials they are using somewhat less than interesting to start with, severe boredom may have set in by mid-term, or even sometimes by mid-week. In such situations the judicious use of role playing can involve the students directly in the generation and analysis of various grammatical and non-grammatical forms.

For instance, role playing can increase recognition of sentence parts, such as dependent clauses. In my own ESL writing class, which uses Robert L. Allen's *Working Sentences*, I have used role playing to help students identify and use shifters and half sentences. (Essentially, "shifters" and "half sentences" are Allen's terms for certain types of dependent clauses.) I invite two students, a boy and a girl, to come to the front of the class, while I retire to the rear of the class, out

of sight. Being a non-sexist teacher, I tell the two students that one of them is going to ask the other one for a date to the dance Friday night, but that they themselves must decide who will do the asking and who the responding. The only stipulation is that the asker must use a shifter in each sentence and the responder must use a half sentence in each response. This never fails to generate lively participation from every student in the class. Here is a transcription of a tape of one such session made this semester.

Asker: *Since you're a popular boy,*
(Using Shifter) I'd like to ask you to the dance. Friday night.

Responder: *Already having a date,*
(Using Half Sentence) I must decline.

Asker: *If you really want to go with me,*
(Using Shifter) you could get rid of the other girl.

Responder: *Fearing her father's wrath,*
(Using Half Sentence) I must go with her Friday night.

Asker: *Because you're such a coward,*
(Using Shifter) I'll invite someone else to go with me.

As you can easily imagine, the dialogs rapidly get much more exciting than this. But the critical point is not how "good" the dialog is, but that the stu-

dents are creating their own text, which is the key to their increased involvement in it.

Many variations of the basic role playing format are possible. For instance, about halfway through a dialog the teacher can request the students to switch grammatical patterns, or both. As another variation, a third student can be chosen to direct the selection of roles and grammatical patterns. To involve the entire class, teams can be chosen, with each member in turn responsible to add a sentence to the dialog.

When students tire of the dialog, many new situations can be invented, using the same format as explained above. Some I've found popular with my students are:

1. Two political candidates arguing a hot question, such as drug laws, abortion, or ERA.
2. A teacher and a student discussing a grade on the last paper or test.
3. A mother and daughter discussing the daughter's newest boyfriend.

As a final variation, groups of students can prepare skits or plays based on any grammatical structures that the teacher thinks would be beneficial to the class members. With the aid of a tape recorder all these role playing creations can be transferred to a written form for later analysis and study by the students and/or the teacher. Thus, because they have created it, the students become directly involved in their text.

TESOL/TESTING/ TESOL/TESTING/ TESOL/TESTING TESOL/TESTING/ TESOL/TESTING/ TESOL/TESTING

NEW FROM TESOL...

Concepts in Language Testing: Some Recent Studies

Edited by Eugene Briere and Frances Butler Hinofotis with papers by Victor Hanzeli, Eugene Briere, Frances B. Hinofotis, Karen A. Mullen, Randall L. Jones, John L. D. Clark, John W. Oller, John A. Upshur writing on cloze tests, oral language proficiency and validity.

The papers in this book reflect the latest research into some of the nagging theoretical problems in language testing and look at several aspects involved in measuring language skills in various situations in and out of the classroom.

General price \$5.00. TESOL members \$4.00.

TESOL INTERNATIONAL

455 Nevils Building / Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057

LETTERS

Continued from page 28

gestions as to how the teacher can fit these into the circumstances of the individual work place. These materials are for use with migrants with little or no English. Research is being carried out at present with a view to providing materials for use with migrants whose limited English language ability is preventing them from developing fully their potential for promotion to supervisory positions.

The Branch is also producing bilingual correspondence materials for adult beginners (English-Italian, English-Greek, English-Turkish, etc.) and supplementary reading materials at varying levels of difficulty. For use with migrant children the Branch is engaged in three materials production projects. These are *Learning English in Australia*, *English Development Course*, and the *Under 8* materials project. *Learning English in Australia* is a course designed for beginning pupils aged 8 to 12. The *English Development Course* is a course designed for pupils who have passed the beginners stage and is intended for use in Australian secondary schools and upper primary classes. The *Under 8* materials project is at a very early stage but is designed for use with migrant children under the age of eight. A number of English language tests are produced by the Branch, some for use with adult migrants, others for use with overseas students wishing to study in Australia.

Yours faithfully,

K. N. JONES
Dept. of Education
Canberra, Australia

Dear Editor,

In the June TN Richard Showstack remarks, apropos of the words "overseas teaching experience preferred" in job advertisements for TESL or TEFL positions, "I can never figure out why teaching overseas would make a person a better teacher than teaching foreign students in the U.S." It seems a reasonable question and deserves an answer. Teaching English abroad is different from teaching foreign students in the U.S. and more difficult, I think, in three major ways.

1) Students in the U.S. need to understand lectures in English, to converse with American students, to read a newspaper or a time-table in English—in short, to know the whole range of language skills. And they know this, so they are comparably willing to learn them. In contrast, a student abroad may only be willing to learn to read English in his specialized field, and be resentful of any instruction that does not seem to him immediately to pertain to that specialized goal. Besides, the surroundings of a student in the U.S. lead him, at times even force him, to try to attain greater competence in English. But it is far easier and pleasanter for a student in his own country not to use English outside the

classroom. I suppose every teacher abroad has had the experience of having his students come back from a summer vacation with a worse knowledge of English than they had half-way through the previous year, simply from not using their English for months.

2) Language and culture are learned together—especially in ESL/EFL, since the textbooks in this field are remarkably culture-bound. Students in the U.S., being now immersed in this culture, are willing and sometimes even anxious to learn about it. On the contrary, students abroad, especially in the Third World, may be indifferent to—or, more likely, actively hostile to—American culture. This indifference or hostility may be based on resentment of the wealth and power of the U.S., on a sense that their own traditions and values are threatened by the technological civilization associated with the West and particularly with the U.S., on doctrinaire Marxism, or on a combination of reasons. Whatever the reasons, it is very difficult to learn the language of a resented culture.

3) A teacher in the U.S. is relatively free to experiment, to try various teaching methods and to choose the one that seems to work best. And TESL professionals in this country have taken advantage of this freedom, as any issue of the TN or the TESOL Quarterly or any report of a TESOL Convention will attest. But the teacher abroad usually finds that he is part of a rigid, unyielding often financially straitened national educational system that allows very little experimentation. And his students will be accustomed to specific ways of teaching and of learning and will dismiss other ways as simply no part of education. One of Mr. Showstack's resolutions is "To be more tolerant of different students' learning styles." If he teaches abroad, he will find that the problem will not be his intolerance of his students' learning styles, but his students' intolerance of his teaching style. And the students are in the majority; the system supports them.

At the school where I taught—Jundi Shapur University in southern Iran—we reckoned that a new teacher, even one with a TEFL M.A. and experience in teaching in the U.S., was confused, bewildered, and operating at only half capacity for her/his first year at the school. I think a great many other teachers abroad would agree with that assessment.

As for the "overseas teaching experience preferred" often seen in domestic job ads, the director of the ESL program (often a person who has taught abroad) usually understands the difference between teaching English abroad and teaching it in the U.S., and thinks that the best ESL teacher is one who was once a "foreigner" himself. So much experience lies behind that "preferred" phrase that this brief letter can barely explain it.

Cordially,
James F. Doubleday
Rio Grande (Ohio)
College

'GO EAST, GO WEST; BUT DON'T COME BACK'

by Peter Hill
English Language Services

Some leave it until their late 20s; but those who leave it any longer have probably left it too late. I refer to the decision all TEFL teachers abroad have to take sooner or later—whether or not to return to the UK, and if so, when.

Although the British Council and other recruiting agents, along with teacher-trainers in university departments, like to speak of a career in EFL teaching overseas, in fact it is not much of a career, unless you have a permanent post with the British Council of course. At best one makes a series of hops to what one hopes are increasingly lucrative posts in widely different regions of the world, with no long-term security, no pension rights, and ultimately no prospects. In the end most teachers return to this country: because they have proved to themselves that they can live abroad, because they have run out of challenges to overcome, because they are tired of political upheaval and corruption abroad, because they have young children or even because when all is said and done the only people they can really talk to are their fellow Britons.

So back they come—experienced, well-travelled, sunburnt, cosmopolitan, optimistic. And quickly discover that they have arrived at an inconvenient time for finding a job, and that the money they have accumulated overseas is running out fast.

Returning from Yugoslavia in 1972 to do an MA in this country I had several months before my course ended to look for a job—and in the event I only had to apply for 15 posts in Further Education before being accepted for one. Luck played a substantial part. After one interview session in Inner London, although the post advertised was given to a candidate with 4 years' teaching experience in local schools, it appeared there was another job . . . and my experience abroad led my future employers to believe that I might have some answers to the ESL problems currently besetting them. Yet someone with the background I had then would never be able to secure a Lecturer I post in general education now; and my time abroad has not been referred to since.

This experience of returning from the Continent was, however, not as extreme as those of my contemporaries who have taught in Third World countries. Having been used to considerable power and responsibilities abroad—to say nothing of tax-free salaries, free accom-

Continued on page 31

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Another aspect of your job will be the direction of research for the development of curricula, policies and programs, and coordinating the academic curriculum with industrial training activities.

You will also help determine such stan-

dards as teacher qualifications, hiring specifications, teacher load, class size, and trainee advancement.

The above includes evaluating teachers, advising principals on performance and assignment of teachers, and planning and administering workshops for teaching and supervisory staff.

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This very demanding position requires a master's degree in linguistics or closely related field. Preference will be given to a Ph.D or Ed.D.

You must also have 7 to 10 years' experience in teaching and developing language courses for teaching English as a second language, preferably in an industrial environment.

Senior English Advisor

Another of our needs is for a curriculum specialist to work in a large program to teach English as a foreign language to adult Saudi Arab employees, from absolute beginners to advanced students.

This position requires a bachelor's degree, with a master's in teaching English as a foreign language preferred.

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CHALLENGE BY CHOICE

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ARABIC WORDS IN ENGLISH

by G. C. W. Donald
University of Petroleum and Minerals

In our University here, we are gradually assimilating Arabic words and phrases into our own local English vocabulary. *Jebel* is already a standard word in U.P.M. dialect. Here then, we are watching at first hand, the process of "word-borrowing" at work. Since 711 when Tariq at the head of his 300 Arabs and 7,000 Berbers began his successful Islamic conquest of Visigothic Spain, this has been a continuous process. All European languages have been greatly enriched and nourished by it. Tariq himself left his own linguistic monument in the name of his first conquered mountain—Gibraltar (*jebel-el-Tariq*) and countless Spanish place names are still closely related to their Arabic origin: Trafalgar (*taraf-al-ghar* = cape of the cave), Guadalquivir (*wadi-l-Kabir* = the great river) and Algeciras (*al-jazira* = the island). The most famous is the Alhambra (*beit al-hamra* = the red house) the magnificent palace of the Moorish Kings at Granada built between 1248 and 1354. Even the encouraging and triumphant cry in the Spanish bull-ring—"Ole, Ole" is possibly derived from *Wallahi*—and the troubadour, so popular in Romantic Spanish literature, is from *tarraba* = to sing. The Spanish expression "ojala" is undoubtedly a corruption of *in sha'llah*.

The English language in particular has borrowed and continues to borrow Arab words and phrases and they constitute some of the most interesting, beautiful and delightful words in the language. They come from the time of the great Islamic culture in the Iberian peninsula when Cordoba was the most civilised city in the World and when Spain was "the torch of Europe"; from that less happy fusion of East and West between 1096 and 1291—that fatal clash of piracy and plunder known as the Crusades; from the constant flow of trade and commerce between the Arabian world and her eager Northern customers—and, as modern technology makes our world more and more of "a global village," from that ready interchange of thoughts and ideas between two co-equal friendly and neighbouring cultures.

Some of the borrowed words are so close to their Arabic form and meaning that they need no explanation: alchemy, algebra, alkali, almanac, amber, apricot, attar, azure, borax, caliph, caraway, cat, chemistry, cipher, cotton, crimson, divan, elixir, emir, fakir, gazelle, goul, giraffe, henna, houri, jar, jasmine, lemon, lilac, nadir, safari, saffron, sheikh, sher-

bet, sofa, spinach, sugar, sultan, syrup, talisman.

The Islamic religious words retain their exact Arabic form and meaning in Romanised Arabic, with the exception of mosque which has been more clearly anglicised from *masjid*: Allah, hajj, Hegira, imam, Islam, jihad, Kaaba, Koran, Moslem, mosque, Satan. *Mecca*, with a capital *M* denotes of course the Holy City in Saudi Arabia, the birth-place of the Holy Prophet Mohammed and a place of pilgrimage for all Moslems: *mecca*, with a small *m*, signifies any outstanding place revered or resorted to, e.g. the Louvre Museum in Paris, mecca of art lovers—or St. Andrews (Scotland), mecca of golf. The Islamic era begins with the Hegira and dates in the Islamic Calendar are marked A.H.—after the Hegira.

Other words are simply Romanised Arabic and can only be used in an Arabic connotation; some, indeed, are not yet quite sure if they have been borrowed and as such are usually written in italics: *fellah*, *jinni*, *saluki*, *shish kebab*, *wadi*. Both *Strocco* (*sharq* = the east) and *Khamsin* (lasting for 50 days) are internationally accepted as names of winds.

The most interesting group of words however are those with drastically altered pronunciation, or where the meaning itself has changed. "Soda" for example is ultimately derived from *suda* = a splitting head-ache—soda-water being a refreshing cure for just such a head-ache! "To jabber" (to talk rapidly and incoherently) is from the famous 8th Century alchemist *Jaaber* ibn Hayyan either because he failed completely in transmuting *anything* into gold—or because of the supposedly secret and hence incomprehensible language he used to keep his knowledge confidential. "Tabby" (a striped or female cat) is from *Attabi*, the name of a district in Baghdad where striped cloth was manufactured. "So long" (slang for good-bye till next time) is very likely a corruption of *salaam* and checkmate (the victory declaration in chess) is Persian/Arabic *shah mat* = the King is dead. "Assassin" is from *hashshashin* = hashish eaters. (These hashish eaters were fanatical members of a military order in Persia and Syria between the 11th and 13th centuries notorious for secret murders. Before each vicious crime, they inflamed their passions with hashish.) "Admiral," the chief commander of a navy, is from *amir al-bahr* = lord of the sea.

The list, of course, is endless, and in some cases entirely speculative without any sound etymological basis, but here are some of the most interesting English words borrowed from Arabic with either drastically altered pronunciation or meaning. Space does not permit a full

explanation, so I have merely written the possible Arabic derivation in Romanised phonetics with a very simple translation or explanation where needed: alcohol (*al-kohl* = finely ground powder used to stain the eye-lids; any fine powder; an essence); alcove (*al-gobbah* = a vault); arsenal (*dar acctnah* = workshop); artichoke (*ardi shokeh* = thorn of the ground; calibre (*galib* = mould); carat (*ghrat* = weight of 4 grains); coffee (*gahwah*); damask (from *Damascus*); garble (*ghirbal* = a sieve); gauze (from *Gaza*); hazzard (*alzar* = the dice); lute (*alud*); macabre (*makabar* plural = graveyards); military magazine (*makhzan* = a storehouse); masquerade (*maskharah* = a buffoon); mattress (*match* = place for laying things down); muslin (from *Mosul*); ream of paper (*rizmah* = a bundle); sash (*shash*); satin (*zaytuni* = from the Chinese city of Ts'ient'ang); tamarind (*tamir Hindi* = date of India); tambourine (*tambur* = a stringed instrument); tangerine (the mandarin orange from Tangiers); tariff (*ta'arif* = explanation); zenith (*samt-ar-ras* = direction of the head).

We are obviously still in the middle of an exciting language process that is not yet nor ever will be completed. Both Arabic and English are living languages and this free interchange of words is its life-blood. As long as this vital interchange continues, language itself will always be the mainspring of new thoughts and new ideas.

(Reprinted from the *ELI Monthly*)

GO EAST GO WEST . . .

Continued from page 29

modation, servants and the other trimmings of the expatriate life-style—they return to the attitude that their working abroad must have been interesting, but that it does not fit them for any post of responsibility here. They may have broadened their outlook, but they have done nothing to advance their careers. And during their absence younger and perhaps less able people have prospered.

There is no law which says you should be able to have your cake and eat it too, and none which says that a teacher who has done a good job abroad should be fitted into the UK education system at an appropriate level. We live in a world of supply and demand. And the fact is that it is easier than even before for keen, recently qualified teachers to find interesting, well-paid jobs overseas, and more difficult than ever for them to find satisfying posts when they return.

(Reprinted from the *E.F.L. Gazette*, 15 April 1979.)

CERTIFICATION UP-DATE

Continued from page 1

attitudinal comments as well as specific certification information. According to the replies, seventeen states and the District of Columbia have some form of bilingual certification; eleven states, the District, and Puerto Rico have ESL certification. Eleven have bilingual only, six ESL only, seven have both. Twenty-four have one or both; thirty-one have neither.

These figures need comment. Excluding the South, where the NELB (non-English Language Background) population is the smallest and only one state, Louisiana, has bilingual certification, fully half of the states have come to bilingual or ESL certification, or both. It is worth mentioning that ten states or territories indicate they are "working on it," "studying it," or expect a report soon: Colorado, Florida, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, Virginia, Guam, and the Trust Territories. In addition, Louisiana, with bilingual, is studying ESL certification, and Puerto Rico, with ESL, is studying bilingual.

The NELB national average in 1976 was 13%, approximately 28 million. Seven states above the national average in

NELB do not have bilingual certification. Of these, four are studying it or expect it soon; two do have ESL certification; only one sees no need in spite of a 16% NELB figure. Seven states below the national NELB average do have bilingual (five northern states plus Delaware and the District of Columbia). Of 12 "southern" states, only one, Louisiana (17%) has bilingual; two are considering it (Florida, 14%, and Virginia, 5%). The remaining nine have an NELB of either 1% or 2%. The next lowest NELB states are Missouri (4%), and Iowa, Oklahoma, and Indiana (5%). Oklahoma, without bilingual or ESL certification, has the second largest Native American population, about 4% (nationally Indians are less than half of 1%). Indiana, with a low 5% NELB, has bilingual certification, perhaps because it has a much higher percentage in its northernmost areas.

The overall breakdown is as follows: Bilingual Certification or endorsement: Alaska, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Texas, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and the District of Columbia (average NELB, 16%).

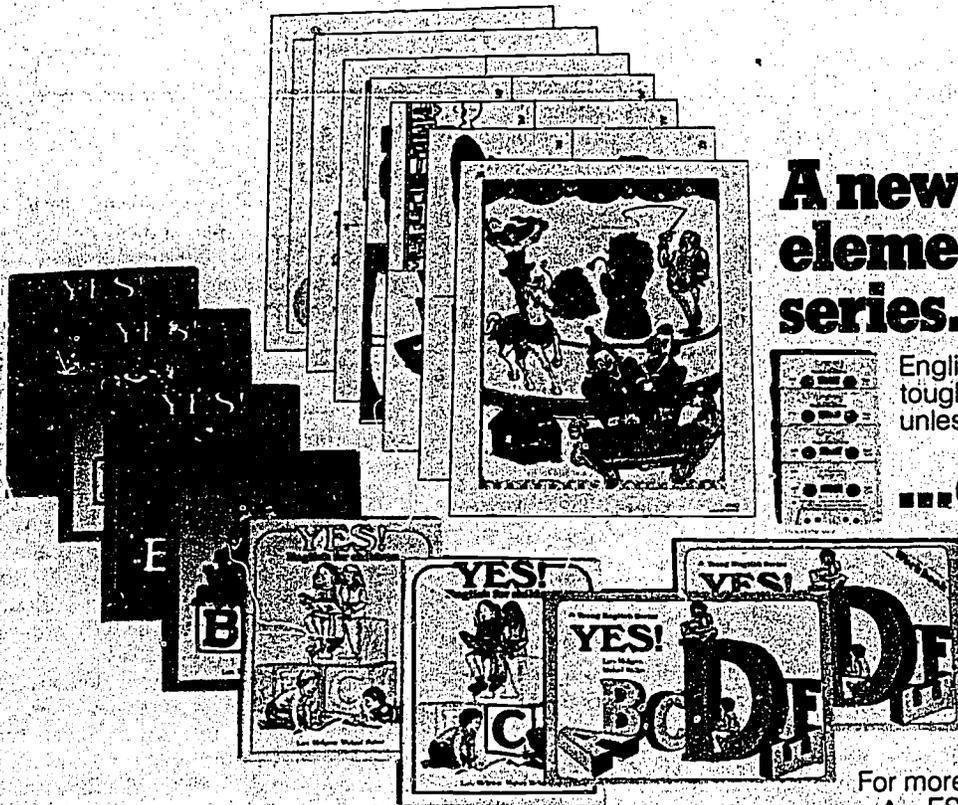
ESL Certification: Alaska, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Rhode Island,

Utah, Wisconsin, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico (not counting Puerto Rico, average NELB, 16%).

Both Bilingual and ESL: Alaska (14%), Delaware (7%), New Jersey (19%), New Mexico (44%), Rhode Island (21%), Wisconsin (10%), D.C. (8%) (average NELB, 18%). (Average NELB of states without either, 7%, including the highest, New York, 25%.)

Of the 18 states above the national average in NELB, 13 (72%) have certification in one or the other; of the 32 states below the average, 9 (28%) have one or the other. We have no figures on the NELB of the population in Puerto Rico, Samoa, Guam, or the Trust Territories. All are much higher than in any of the 50 states, of which the highest is New Mexico, 44%. The figures used in this summary are taken from the Survey of Income and Education (SIE), by the Bureau of the Census in the spring of 1976, as reported by Dorothy Waggoner of the National Center for Educational Statistics in the *TESOL Quarterly*, September, 1978.

Still needed are more specific details of certification requirements for those states having certification, and progress reports or statements of need or lack of need from the others. In some cases, these items will be satisfactorily obtained only by direct visitation and interview.



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TESOL

VSL LETTER

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

December 1979

TESOL '80 SAN FRANCISCO

International TESOL '80 will be a tribute to Ruth Crymes. As it began to take form, Ruth, as TESOL president, was asked to indicate what she would like to see happen in a convention—her convention. Her view of our world as a "village" with the closeness that we, in TESOL, feel, although we are scattered throughout the world, gave rise to the realization that TESOL has, indeed, been a moving force in establishing firmer links and "building bridges" in international communication. With Ruth's guidance, we set out to plan a convention to show how many bridges have been built by TESOL and what promise lies ahead.

To give an idea of the international communication links established—we decided to include plenty of sessions on training non-native speaking English teachers, on collaboration

between teacher training institutions and public education, on English for special purposes, on second language acquisition, on language in American life and on TESOL's work with other professional organizations. Each of our nine special interest groups, whose growth and activities deserve special notice, will be well represented by papers and demonstrations. Other extra special sessions are planned to cover such topics as employment issues and job insecurity, legislation and TESOL, business and TESOL and certification in the United States. The varied program will have something of interest for all who are involved in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

We invite you to join us in strengthening the bridges already constructed by TESOL and in building new ones. At TESOL '80, we will see the handiwork throughout. Come help us make this a convention to remember for its positive answer to the challenges that lie ahead. Answer the call of the Golden Gate bridge! Come to San Francisco and TESOL '80!

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The heart sorrows to hear it,
But man's fortune is mysterious,
Until yesterday, until today,
We too spoke as if of other's grief.
Chikamatsu Monzaemon

Praising what is lost
Makes the remembrance dear.
William Shakespeare



There is
No hurt

Let such teach others who themselves excel.
Alexander Pope



For she who
The bright
Seemed all



... in her hands
... feet.
Christina Georgina Rossetti



... her beauty made
... im, and everything beside
... eting image of a shade
Percy Bysshe Shelley

A BARE-BONES BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR TEACHERS OF ESL*

John Haskell

Last Spring I asked a number of teachers and teacher trainers to speculate on a basic library for an ESL teacher. They were asked to provide a list of ten books which they thought would be a practical beginning collection (with the provision that they might add up to five additional books as future choices and any supplemental articles they might think important). The selections, listed below reflect the diversity of our field, not surprisingly the personal tastes and preferences of the listers, and by their comments (and the number who could not stick to ten) the difficulty producing such a list entailed. The lists are reprinted as received, tidied up where necessary, with annotation when included and with some of the appropriate comments that accompanied them. Publication information was not otherwise added as it was felt that author and title were sufficient information needed to find any book listed.

The lists are all excellent and unique and will perhaps in their reading suggest individual volumes which may be suitable to your need. I couldn't resist adding my own list, in large part because, as Virginia Allen said of her list, it contains hooks no one else mentioned.

* Title borrowed from Dick Yorkey's list.

RICHARD YORKEY

A Bare-Bones Bibliography For Teachers Of English To Speakers Of Other Languages

In selecting and rejecting ideas for this very limited, highly personal bibliography, I have had in mind an ESL teacher who at one time or another will undoubtedly have to adapt material from a prescribed text, prepare original material, answer questions from students in class and who will occasionally want to satisfy his or her professional interest in theoretical ideas and technical facts about language learning and the English language.

I have assumed that every ESL teacher already has a good, up-to-date desk dictionary of the English language, if not the unabridged Webster III and/or the Shorter Oxford.

Where fools rush in, I suppose the only way to answer the question of "Why this book and not that one?" is to counter with an equally unanswerable question, "Why that book and not this one?" For what it is worth then, here is my list of basic resources that every professional ESL teacher ought to have. Note that there is no particular significance to the order in which I have listed the books.

1. The best, and most complete and current, grammar of English is Randolph Quirk *et al.*, *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (London: Longman, 1972). It is also the most expensive. A reasonable abridgement, by Randolph Quirk and Sydney Greenbaum, is *A University Grammar of English* (Lon-

don: Longman, 1973) and the American edition, *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973). A new kind of grammar with a different orientation, but also based on *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, is Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik, *A Communicative Grammar of English* (London: Longman, 1975). After making distinctions between formal and informal, written and spoken, British and American uses of English, and a brief description of English intonation, the authors present the facts of English grammar according to the uses and communicative purposes of grammar rather than the traditional organization by structure. The final part is an alphabetically arranged guide to English morphology and syntax, with definitions and examples of grammatical terms. Any one of these grammars would be a useful professional resource.

2. A. S. Hornby, *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* (London: Oxford University Press, second edition, 1975). This little reference book is an authoritative, conveniently organized guide to British and American syntax. It is divided into five parts: (1) Verbs and verb patterns, including 80 tables of 25 basic sentence patterns with numerous examples of each and detailed notes of explanation. (The numbered patterns correspond with those in Hornby's *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*); (2) Time and Tense, which is 30 pages of clear descriptions and examples of tense forms and meanings; (3) Nouns, Determiners, and Adjectives; (4) Adverbials; and (5) Various concepts and ways in which they are expressed. (Long before notions were fashionable, Hornby explored the grammatical forms and phrases to express such notions as requests, instructions, permission, probability, possibility, intention, refusals, purpose, concession, etc.)

3. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (London: Longman, 1978.) Although this and the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* are both excellent for ESL purposes, and either one should be on any teacher's professional shelf; I prefer the Longman dictionary. The defining vocabulary is limited to the words in the *General Service List* and listed in the appendix. There are more defining sentences that are better contextualized for meaning. Usage notes are realistic recognition of the needs of ESL students (and a useful guide for ESL teachers). It includes more current slang and informal usage, particularly of American English. The grammar and syntax of entries are coded with reference to introductory explanations and examples, based on *A Grammar of Contemporary English*.

4. Donn Byrne, *Teaching Oral English* (London: Longman, 1976). This book is a distillation of Byrne's many years of practical experience in teaching ESL in the artificial environment of the classroom. His theoretical statements are always followed by practical application and examples for teaching oral communication, listening comprehension, and a methodology that follows a careful progression from the presentation stage, through the practice stage, to the production stage. Final chapters include ideas about language games, oral composition, play reading, and audio-visual aids.

5. Christina Bratt Paulston and Mary Bruder, *From Substitution to Substance: A Handbook of Structural Pattern Drills* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1975). Since teachers will inevitably use some kind of pattern drills, they could profit from the theoretical considerations here and the distinction between mechanical, meaningful, and communicative drills. The Index of Patterns is an inventory of grammatical and syntactic structures that are included, with suggested frames for pattern practice and situational contexts for communicative practice.

6. A teacher should have a reference that gives a clear presentation of the theoretical aspects of phonology and practical suggestions and examples for teaching pronunciation. A good choice is between J. Donald Bowen, *Patterns of English Pronunciation* (Rowley Mass.: Newbury House, 1975) and Clifford J. Prator and Betty Wallace Robinett, *Manual of American English Pronunciation* (New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, third edition, 1972).

7. Fe R. Dacanay, *Techniques and Procedures in Second-Language Teaching* (Quezon City: Phoenix Press, 1963; reprinted and distributed by Oceana Press, Dobbs Ferry, New York). Despite its age, references to Tagalog and teaching ESL in the Philippines, this book remains one of the most complete and useful resources for ESL teachers. It is especially valuable for practical ideas for presenting English structure (Chapter 1) and for lists and examples of major and minor spelling patterns (Chapter 6). Chapters on the teaching of pronunciation, reading and writing, and on testing are also filled with practical ideas for the elementary and secondary levels, but which could easily be adapted to adult levels and intensive programs.

8. J. B. Heaton, *Writing English Language Tests* (London: Longman, 1975). This is a practical guide to the construction of English tests intended primarily for the classroom teacher. Following introductory chapters about language testing in general and objective testing in particular, chapters include information and examples of tests of grammar, vocabulary, listening comprehension, oral production, reading and writing skills. Final chapters include a discussion of criteria and types of tests and interpreting test scores.

9. J. A. van Ek, *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools* (London: Longman, 1977). Based on *The Threshold Level in a European Unit/Credit System for Modern Language Learning by Adults* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1975), this adaptation considers the functional-notional syllabus for high school students. Much theoretical and explanatory information is included in the first thirty pages. Its chief value as a resource, however, is the detailed listing of objectives for topic-related language behavior, the index of language functions and general notions, and the content specifications with exponents for English. Of particular value for teachers are the lexical and structural inventories.

10. W. R. Lee, *Language Teaching Games and Contexts* (London: Oxford University Press, 1965). To add interest and

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variety in a class, games are useful, especially for those unplanned few minutes in class. This book is a good collection of games for spelling, reading and writing, pronunciation, and oral English practice.

CHRISTINA BRATT PAULSTON

Ten Volumes That A New Teacher Might Find Useful

Teachers are constantly told, by me as well, that there is nothing as practical as good theory. Maybe that is true, but it strikes me forcefully on finishing up a course on theories of language acquisition how very little we know about language learning on a theoretical level. Therefore, it seems to me that it makes little sense to stuff an unwilling teacher with speculative theories, and so my list is primarily concerned with matters of the classroom; in short, a survival list. Allen and Corder's (1975) *Papers in Applied Linguistics Vol 2* will suffice for theoretical issues.

A major weakness of many beginning teachers, native speakers as well as non-native, is a lack of knowledge of English grammar. The teacher needs a reference grammar as well as a pedagogically oriented work and my choices are Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and Crowell's *Index to Modern English* (1964). A dictionary is also a necessity, and my one splurge recommendation is for the big hardcover college edition of *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* with its fine introductory essays as an extra perk. Another weakness tends to be in testing, and every teacher can use at least one handbook on testing, such as Harris' *Testing English as a Second Language* (1969).

What most teachers perceive as their major need, and I frankly think they are right, is a source for methods and techniques. In alphabetical order here are three: Allen and Valette, *Modern Language Classroom Techniques*, (1972); Rivers and Temperley, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English* (1978); and Robinett, *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (1978).

An ESL teacher often ends up in bilingual education programs or as consultant to elementary school teachers, and for such situations Saville-Troike's *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language* (1976) will come in handy. Finally ESL teachers need to realize that they are part of a professional body as well as to keep up with recent developments, and to that purpose for a tenth volume I would recommend membership in TESOL and its subscriptions to the *TESOL Quarterly* and the *TESOL Newsletter*. And just so that they would really feel with it, add to the list of ten volumes an article each on (in no particular order) The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Counseling Learning, and Notional-Functional Syllabuses.

For the five additional books, what I would really do, whether for a hypothetical teacher or for myself going abroad to teach ESL, is to pick five "best" textbooks in ESL from which I could augment the lessons of the no doubt bad texts I would end up teaching from. But since I don't suppose

that was the intention of this exercise, here are five more:

- Bright and McGregor, *Teaching English as a Second Language* (1970)
Chastain, *Developing Second Language Skills* (1976)
Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945)
Jespersen, *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (1904)
Kelly, *25 Centuries of Language Teaching* (1969)
Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957)

VIRGINIA ALLEN

Good luck on your bibliography project. I'll be interested in the outcome, as my mind rebelled against specifying the 10 most useful. I found myself reasoning, "Maybe no one else will mention this really good item, so I'd better put it in"—thus leaving out some equally valuable stuff. I deliberately included a few "oldie but goodie" books, as I think we should combat the tendency to rule out everything published more than five years ago.

In your article you may want to put asterisks on items that were suggested by most of your consultants, but make it clear that the fact someone omitted it might simply mean it was too obvious a choice (as implied in my first paragraph).

Benardo, Leo U. and Dora F. Pantell. *English: Your New Language*. Morristown, N.J.: Silver Burdett, 1966. With accompanying Teacher's Edition, Book I serves as an interesting first text for adults and high-school age students, Book II for more advanced levels of English proficiency; attractively illustrated, most suitable for "survival" courses rather than college prep.

Dale, Edgar and Joseph O'Rourke. *The Living Word Vocabulary: The Words We Know*. Elgin, IL: Dome Press, 1976. Not for the teacher's personal library because of its cost, but useful for the district's curriculum library, as it lists 40,000 words (with separate senses indicated) and shows at which grade each word is known by most American students. For those who are helping students prepare to compete with native speakers at various grade levels.

Danielson, Dorothy and Rebecca Hayden. *Using English, Your Second Language*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1973. One of the meatiest of the exercise/activity texts for upper level students, for grammar, reading, composition, punctuation.

Fries, Charles C. *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan Press, 1945. Chapter IV and V of this classic Methods text still have much to say to teachers about vocabulary learning. Even portions of the book which make currently disputed claims ought to be read by professionals in TESOL...

Guide for the Volunteer English Teacher. Washington, D.C.: National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1973. A bird's eye view of the field in about 25 pages, for real novices, with brief bibliography.

Johnson, Francis C. *English as a Second Language: An Individualized Approach*.

Brisbane, Australia: Jacaranda Press, 1973. How to get students to teach other students, by one who has successfully done it.

MET (Modern English Teacher): A Magazine of Practical Suggestions for Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Subscriptions Dept.: 6 Manton Avenue, Grimsby DN32 9BB, South Humberside, England. Published four times a year, full of interesting things for students, and ideas for teachers: very useful illustrations.

Neustadt, Bertie C. *Speaking of the U.S.A.: A Reader for Discussion*. N.Y.: Harper & Row, 1975. Fairly comprehensive coverage of American institutions (government, libraries, media, arts, education, etc.) for courses designed to orient advanced students to the American scene.

Nida, Eugene A. *Customs and Cultures*. N.Y.: Harper, 1954. Comments by a missionary who had to learn to communicate with many different cultures, richly illustrating the influence of culture on language, full of enlightening details.

Phillips, Nina. *Conversational English for the Non-English Speaking Child*. N.Y.: Teachers College Press, 1967. Unlike most Methods books, this focuses on the really young learner and practical classroom activities for that age group. Designed for untrained volunteers, better for low-income pupils than for more affluent children; urban teachers often recommend it.

Prator, Clifford H. and Betty W. Robinett. *A Manual of American English Pronunciation*. For teacher reference and also classroom exercises on intonation, stress, and other aspects of the sound system.

Thonis, Eleanor Wall. *Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers*. N.Y.: Macmillan, 1970. Detailed suggestions on teaching reading at all levels of instruction, with a balanced discussion of contributions of different approaches.

Yorkey, Richard C. *Study Skills for Students of English as a Second Language*. N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1970. Basically a Freshman Composition text for speakers of other languages, dealing with library skills, use of dictionary, outlining, note-taking, examination strategies. For academically oriented adolescents and college students.

JAYNE HARDER

My emphasis is on information about the English language rather than on methodology or materials—though I have not completely excluded these. In no particular order, my choices follow.

(1) Allen, Harold B. and Russell N. Campbell, eds. *Teaching English as a Second Language*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

(2) Close, R. A. *English as a Foreign Language*, 2d edition. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1977.

(3) Quirk, Randolph and Sidney Greenbaum. *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc., 1976.

(4) Nilsen, Donald and Aleen Pace Nilsen. *Pronunciation Contrasts in English*. New York: Regents, 1973.

(5) A good phonetics book which has clear articulatory descriptions, such as

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Thomas, Charles K. *An Introduction to the Phonetics of American English*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958.

(6) Halliday, M. A. K., Angus McIntosh, and Peter Strevens. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London: Longmans, Green, 1964.

(7) Kelly, L. G. *25 Centuries of Language Teaching*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1969.

(8) Allen, J. P. B. and S. Pit Corder, eds. *Techniques in Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 3 of The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics. London: Oxford University Press, 1974.

(9) Finocchiaro, Mary. *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Regents, 1974.

(10) Diller, Karl Conrad. *The Language Teaching Controversy*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

In addition to the basic ten, I would suggest expanding the collection with the following:

(11) Guth, Hans P. *English Today and Tomorrow*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964. [I don't know his newer books, but this one continues to have much merit.]

(12) Wilkins, D. A. *Linguistics in Language Teaching*. Cambridge Mass.: The M. I. T. Press, 1972.

(13) Palmer, Leslie and Bernard Spolsky, eds. *Papers on Language Testing 1967-1974*. Washington, D.C.: TESOL, 1975.

(14) Lado, Robert. *Linguistics Across Cultures*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1957.

I hope we can assume that an ESL teacher (no matter how new) will own a well-worn good dictionary, such as *Webster's New Collegiate*, latest edition. A very useful second dictionary which I would recommend is A. S. Hornby's *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English* (London: Oxford University Press, 1974). I like it because, among other good things, it shows differences between American and British usage.

J. DONALD BOWEN

I'll list categories, with several items in them; since you want my opinion for a single identification, my choice will be the first listed. But you'll see that I select arbitrarily, usually the book I've worked on or the one I know best. So out the window with impartiality. [I'll mention books by author(s) or titles only; I assume you don't need formal entries.]

1. A substantial monolingual dictionary: *Webster's New World, Funk & Wagnall's Standard College, Webster's Collegiate*, etc.

2. A student dictionary: Hornby et al.'s *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. (This dictionary has a lot of very useful grammatical information. I might settle for it alone if it were not limited to British English.)

3. A pronunciation textbook: Bowen's *Patterns of English Pronunciation*, Prator's *Manual of American English Pronunciation*.

4. A pronunciation reference: Kenyon and Knott, *A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English*.

5. A standard methodology: Dacanay, Rivers, Chastain, Finocchiaro, Robinett, Dubin & Olshain, Paulston & Bruder.

6. A good anthology: Allen & Campbell, Croft, Celce Murcia & McIntosh (actually I think maybe because of dating, I'd put this volume first on my list), Oller & Richards, Schumann & Stenson, Lugton, Light and Osman.

7. A good pedagogical grammar: Rutherford, Frank, Praninskas, Danielson & Hayden, etc.

8. A reference grammar: Quirk et al. (*A Grammar of Contemporary English*—not the cut down version) Jespersen, Krusinga, Poutsma.

9. Spiritual nourishment: Stevick (*Memory, Meaning & Method*)

10. Perspective: Kelly *25 Centuries of Language Teaching*; Mouton, *Ling & Language Teaching*.

But now that I'm started I can't stop: When the dam breaks and we can have more than ten books (or categories of books), I'd want to make some additions.

11. Vocabulary: Roget's *Thesaurus* (if I could teach how to use it).

12. Vocabulary teaching: Thorndike and Lorge, *Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*.

All these, and I haven't touched culture, specific texts for written language skills, language analysis (grammatical, error, contrastive), second-language acquisition (which I feel sure I'd be much interested

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in if I only knew something about it), bilingualism, bilingual education, pidgins and pidginization, language testing, linguistic theory (or maybe 'history'), such as Bolinger's *Aspects of Language*.

That's probably enough from me. I won't count the volumes. I think it may be easier to establish the categories than the individual volumes, and anyway there is often not so much difference between, say, methodologies, pedagogical grammars, etc. Everyone will likely have preferences, if only based on his experience using one or another volume. And if he has been an ESL teacher, there's no chance to escape.

Comment I failed to make above: there's no preference in order after the first item on a list. I haven't consulted even my preferences in that much detail.

MARY FINOCCHIARO

- Bowen, J. D., *Patterns of English Pronunciation*, Rowley Mass Newbury, 1975.
- Dobson, Julia, *Effective Techniques for English Conversation Groups*, Rowley Mass, Newbury, 1974.
- Dorry, Gertrude, *Games for Second Language Learning*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- Finocchiaro M. and M. Bonomo, *The Foreign Language Learner: A Guide for Teachers*, Regents, 1973.
- Finocchiaro, M. and S. Sako, *Foreign Language Testing*, Regents, 1979.
- Harris, D., *Testing English as a Second Language*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1969.
- Madson, H. and J. Bowen, *Adaptation in Language Teaching*, Rowley Mass., Newbury, 1978.
- Newton, Anne (ed.), *The Art of TESOL*, Newbury, 1978.
- Nilsen, D. & A. Nilsen, *Pronunciation Contrasts in English*, Regents, 1973.
- Paulston, C. & M. Bruder, *Teaching English as a Second Language*, Winthrop, 1976.
- Prator, C. & B. Robinett, *A Manual of American English Pronunciation* (rev'd ed), New York, Holt, Reinhart.
- Rivers, W. & M. Temperley, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language*, Oxford, 1978.
- Robinett, B., *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Substance and Technique*, McGraw-Hill, 1978.
- Saville-Troike, M., *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Method of Multicultural Education*, Prentice-Hall, 1976.

Also

- Leech, Svartvik, et al. *A Communicative Grammar of English*, Longmans.
- April 1979 Issue of *English Teaching Forum*—"The Functional Notional Syllabus".

JEAN BODMAN

Here is my list of books I'd take with me if I were heading back to Afghanistan.

1. Rivers, Wilga. *Teaching foreign language skills*. University of Chicago.
2. Curran, Charles. *Counseling-learning in second languages*. Apple River Press.

3. Cattegno, Caleb. *The common sense of teaching foreign languages*. Educational Solutions, Inc.

4. Lozanov, Georgi. *Suggestology and outlines of suggestopedya*. Gordon & Breach.

5. van Ek, J.A. *The threshold level for modern language learning in schools*. Longman.

6. Leech, Geoffrey and Jan Svartvik. *A communicative grammar of English*. Longman.

7. Hall, Edward T. *The Silent Language*. Doubleday.

8. Rosten, Leo. *The Education of Hyman Kaplan*. Harper & Row.

9. *Bibliography of Handouts*. Available from the Adult Education Resource Center, Jersey City State College, Jersey City, N.J. 07305.

10. Smith, Frank. *Understanding reading*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

I would also add (for new teachers) one complete textbook series of their own choice. And, if they can manage I book from the following authors: Lawrence, Morley, Raimes, Markstein & Hirasawa, Bodman & Lanzano (if I may be so bold), Alexander, and Hines. Another interesting book for ABE teachers is: Pope, Lilly. *Guidelines to Teaching Remedial Reading*. Book Lab, Inc. Two more books that could be added to an ABE teacher's library are: Kohl, Herbert. *Reading, How To and Carver & Fotinos. A Conversation Book: English in Everyday Life*. Prentice Hall.

I guess what I really want to say here is if the ESL teacher is inexperienced, then s/he should first acquire actual teaching texts. If they have had a formal ESL background, they should have the basic texts on the major teaching methods, some good grammar reference books and then gradually add research materials such as work by Lambert, Carroll, Chomsky, Hymes, Coulthard, Jakobovits, etc.

One other thing that I forgot to mention! If going abroad, I'd bring at least one copy of a test (Michigan, CELT, The John Test).

Needless to say, if the teacher really wants to be a good teacher of ESL, s/he should also have a box of rods, a big picture file and a sturdy canvas bag.

I could go on, but I'll be merciful and stop. I hope you find this interesting. Stevick would have an interesting list if you would like to include him on your survey.

JACK RICHARDS

List I (alphabetical) 10 volumes for the teacher's desk/library

1. Allen, Harold and Russell N. Campbell. *Teaching English as a Second Language*. 1972. McGraw Hill, N.Y.
2. Broughton, Geoffrey et al. 1978. *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.
3. Close, R. A. *A Reference Grammar for Students of English*. 1975. Longman, London.
4. Close, R. A. *English as a Foreign Language*. 1962. Allen and Unwin.
5. Corder, S. P. and J. P. B. Allen. *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics, Vol. 3, Techniques in Applied Linguistics*. 1974. Oxford University Press, London.

6. Heaton, J. B. *Writing English Language Tests*. 1975. Longman, London.

7. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Longman, London. 1978.

8. Joiner, Elizabeth, and Patricia Westphal. *Developing Communication Skills*. 1978. Newbury House, Rowley.

9. Newton, Anne (compiler). *The Art of TESOL, Parts 1 and 2*. 1978. Newbury House, Rowley, Mass.

10. Rogers, John. 1978. *Group Activities for Language Learning*. RELC, Singapore.

List II. 5 additional books as a later addition.

1. Corder, S. P. and J. P. B. Allen. 1974. *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics Vol. 2, Papers in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford University Press, London.

2. Rivers, Wilga. *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. 1968. University of Chicago, Chicago.

3. Stevick, Earl. *Memory, Meaning and Method*. 1976. Newbury House, Rowley, MA.

4. Widdowson, H. G. *Teaching Language as Communication*. 1978. Oxford University Press, London.

5. Wilkins, David. *Notional Syllabuses*, 1976. Oxford University Press, London.

List III. Articles

1. Allen, Patrick. Structural and Functional Models in Language Teaching. *TESL Talk* Vol 8, No. 1, Jan. 1977. p. 5-15.

2. Clark, Mark and Sandra Silberstein. Towards a Realization of Psycholinguistic Principles in the ESL Reading Class. *Language Learning*. Vol. 27/1, June 1977, 135-154.

3. Hendrickson, James. Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching. *Modern Language Journal*, Dec. '78. 387-398.

4. Holmes, Janet and Dorothy F. Brown. Developing Sociolinguistic Competence in a Second Language. *TESOL Quarterly*. 10/4, 1974. 423-432.

5. Krashen, Stephen D. The Monitor Model for Adult Second Language Performance. In *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language*. Marina Burt, Heidi Dulay and Mary Finocchiaro (editors). Regents, NY, 1972. 152-161.

6. Stratton, Florence. Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its Place. *TESOL Quarterly*, 11/2 1977. 131-142.

BERNARD SUSSER

I. Textbook

(1) Chastain, Kenneth. *Developing Second-Language Skills: Theory to Practice*. Chicago: Rand McNally, second edition, 1976.

Part One of this book is an excellent introduction to the discipline of foreign language teaching; Part Two should be used in conjunction with a cookbook.

II. Cookbooks

(2) Paulston, Christina Bratt and Mary Newton Bruder. *Teaching English as a Second Language, Techniques and Procedures*. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, 1976.

(3) Rivers, Wilga M. and Mary S. Temperley. *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1978.

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Despite the similarity of their tables of contents, these books are quite different. It is not just that R & T are more subtle than P & B, or that they are fonder of jargon. P & B are writing from the point of view of the teacher, or more strictly speaking, of the lesson plan, while R & T are looking at what happens in the classroom in terms of what is supposedly taking place inside the student's head. (Compare, e.g., their treatments of multiple choice questions for testing listening comprehension: P & B, p. 140ff; R & T, p. 95ff.)

III. Collections

(4) Allen, Harold B. and Russell N. Campbell. *Teaching English as a Second Language, A Book of Readings*. New York: McGraw-Hill, second edition, 1972.

(5) Croft, Kenneth, ed. *Readings on English as a Second Language*. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, 1972.

IV. Grammar

(6) Stageberg, Norman C. *An Introductory English Grammar*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, second edition, 1971.

Any standard reference grammar of American English will do here.

V. Pronunciation/Phonetics

(7) Bowen, J. Donald. *Patterns of English Pronunciation*. Rowley: Newbury House Publishers, 1975.

Or any other standard study of American English pronunciation.

VI. Horse's Mouth

[TESOL students/teachers need an introduction to some of the important new trends in foreign language teaching. Since these have not been particularly well served by summaries in secondary works, I recommend going straight to the horse's mouth (although some may assign these works to another portion of the horse's anatomy).]

(8) Gattegno, Caleb. *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools the Silent Way*. New York: Educational Solutions, second edition, 1972.

It grieves me to recommend a book whose incomprehensibility seems to be a point of pride with the author, but the ideas are important if only for their shock value, and no secondary description can be trusted. (For example, Robinett's *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* ((University of Minnesota Press and McGraw Hill, 1978) has a whole chapter on "trends and issues in language teaching" but devotes only six lines (p. 167) to the silent way, and these six lines are not based on any study of or even familiarity with Gattegno's work but are taken from Stevick, a man who himself pleads physical inability for hard thinking (*Memory, Meaning and Method*, p. 106) and admits that his description of the Silent Way is "fragmentary and in no sense authoritative." (ibid., p. 135))

(9) Curran, Charles A. *Counseling-Learning in Second Languages*. Apple River Press, 1976.

(10) Asher, James J. and C. Adamski. *Learning Another Language Through Ac-*

tions: The Complete Teacher's Guidebook. Los Gatos: Sky Oak Productions, 1977.

I have chosen these three because they are important but any number of other works might be substituted here. The important thing is that a course in TESOL teacher training should devote considerable time to study and discussion of books and articles presenting new ideas or written from unusual standpoints. The reason for this is that once these students graduate and begin teaching, they will have no trouble getting through the books on teaching methods for TESOL that are emerging from the publishers in a steady stream like a substitution drill from a tape recorder, but they will have trouble with original material unless they are taught how to analyse it. (In short, I am saying that a course on TESOL methodology must do what every course in the humanities and social sciences must do, teach students how to read. And this applies to native speakers as well as non-natives.)

VII. TESOL students and beginning teachers also need to know about:

a. Professional organizations: 1) in their own countries; 2) IATEFL, TESOL and other "international" organizations

b. Sources of information about textbooks and other teaching materials

c. Bibliography: 1) Items such as those mentioned in my *JALT Newsletter* article; 2) ERIC; 3) Croft, Kenneth. *A Composite Bibliography for ESOL Teacher Training*. Washington: TESOL, 1974.

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A BARE-BONES BIBLIOGRAPHY

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RUTH CRYMES

Making book lists seems to be in the air. Did you know that the RELC Journal was doing something along these lines? Some time ago I got a request to list books for various areas and then later I got a questionnaire with several pages of titles listed which I was asked to rate. I don't know when they plan to publish the results.

Also last fall I was asking myself what books and readings in our field would constitute a kind of core reading list that would define our field and I asked our faculty to list titles—but I didn't have much luck getting responses from them. I keep thinking that there must be some kind of basic list of titles that any specialist in the field would be familiar with. But that's different from what you are trying to do.

Enclosed is my effort to list ten titles that I would recommend for a beginning ESL teacher's library. I limited it to books—I wouldn't know where to begin or stop if I listed articles.

Recommended Titles For An ESL Teacher's Library

- Cazden, Courtney B., Vera P. John and Dell Hymes, eds. 1972. *Functions of language in the classroom*. New York, Teachers College Press.
- Coulthard, Malcolm. 1977. *An introduction to discourse analysis*. London, Longman.
- Diller, Karl. 1978. *The language teaching controversy*. Rowley, Mass., Newbury House.
- Jespersen, Otto. 1904. *How to teach a foreign language*. London, George Allen and Unwin.
- Madsen, Harold S. and J. Donald Bowen. 1978. *Adaptation in language teaching*. Rowley, Mass., Newbury House.
- Quirk, Randolph et al. 1972. *A grammar of contemporary English*. London, Longman. Or Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum. 1973. *A concise grammar of contemporary English*. New York, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- and, possibly Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik. 1975. *A communicative grammar of English*. London, Longman.
- Rivers, Wilga M. and Mary Temperley. 1978. *A practical guide to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language*. New York, Oxford University Press.
- Stevick, Earl W. 1976. *Memory, meaning and method*. Rowley, Mass., Newbury House.
- Via, Richard A. 1976. *English in three acts*. Honolulu, University Press of Hawaii.
- Widdowson, Henry G. 1978. *Teaching language as communication*. London, Oxford University Press.

DON KNAPP

1. Fries, Charles C. *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. U. of Michigan Press, 1945.
2. Stevick, Earl J. *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*. Foreign Service Institute, 1971.

3. Leavitt, Leslie W. *Practical Help in Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Beirut: American Univ., 1964.

4. Robinett, Betty. *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Substance and Technique*. McGraw-Hill, 1978.

5. Rivers, Wilga and Mary Temperley. *A Practical Guide to Teaching English as a Second Language*. Oxford, 1978.

6. Harris, David. *Testing English as a Second Language*. McGraw-Hill, 1969.

7. Pauston, Christina and Mary Bruder. *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures*. Winthrop, 1976.

8. Gallwey, Timothy. *The Inner Game of Tennis*. Random House, 1974.

9. Smith, Frank. *Understanding Reading, Second Edition*. Holt Rinehart Winston, 1971.

10. Van Ek, J. A. *The Threshold Level of Modern Language Teaching in Schools*. Longmans, 1978.

TED PLAISTER

Enclosed is THE LIST. Needless to say this is a [expletive deleted] to compile.

I wonder how many people will list Fries. I'm just old-fashioned enough to think that a little history is good for everybody, plus his ideas on vocabulary ain't all that bad. Ken Jackson is in the process of putting together a book (so he tells me) on the history of language teaching—sort of Kelly brought up-to-date. If it is any good, it should be on the list. But it isn't anywhere near completion, so let's just forget that. There are things I don't like about Bernard's [Spolsky] book, but it is still an important overview—I think.

1. Alexander, L. G., W. Stannard Allen, R. A. Close, and R. J. O'Neill. 1970. *English grammatical structure: A general syllabus for teachers*. London: Longman Group Limited.

2. Fries, Charles C. 1945. *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

3. Madsen, Harold S. and J. Donald Bowen. 1978. *Adaptation in language teaching*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

4. Munby, John. 1978. *Communicative syllabus design: A socio-linguistic model for defining the content of purpose-specific language programmes*. London: Cambridge University Press.

5. Rivers, Wilga M. and Mary S. Temperley. 1978. *A practical guide to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language*. New York: Oxford University Press.

6. Smith, Frank. 1978. *Understanding reading, 2d ed.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

7. Spolsky, Bernard. 1978. *Educational linguistics*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

8. Stevick, Earl W. 1976. *Memory, meaning, and method: Some psychological perspectives on language learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

9. Valette, Rebecca M. 1977. *Modern language testing, 2d ed.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

10. Via, Richard A. 1976. *English in*

three acts. Honolulu: The University Press of Hawaii.

Four additional books.

1. Coulthard, Malcolm. 1977. *An introduction to discourse analysis*. London: Longman Group Ltd.

2. Foss, Donald J. and David T. Hakes. 1978. *Psycholinguistics: An introduction to the psychology of language*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

3. Fromkin, Victoria and Robert Rodman. 1974. *An introduction to language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

4. Halliday, M. A. K. 1973. *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd.

DARLENE LARSON

After the extensive work that you have done in preparing a bibliography for your methods students, you are well aware of how impossible it is to choose ten books. But I have found it a "fun thing" to do, anyway. I'm dying to hear what others selected. For me, I'd recommend the following:

1. A grammar written for ESL students: Lorenz, Praninskas, Crowell, Frank . . .
2. A dictionary
3. Edward T. Hall's *The Hidden Dimension*
4. Timothy Gallwey's *The Inner Game of Tennis*
5. Earl Stevick's *Memory, Meaning, and Method*
6. Frank Smith's *Comprehension and Learning*
7. Dave Harris's *Testing English as a Second Language*
8. Nilson and Nilson's *Pronunciation Contrasts*
9. Dykstra, Port and Port's *Ananse Tales*
10. Martin Joos' *The Five Clocks*

Instead of articles or five more books to add later, I'm going to recommend the following as essential resources for a teacher who is going to work with beginning or intermediate students.

1. An atlas of the world (National Geographic's is excellent.)
2. *The Farmer's Almanac*
3. Road maps of the State and information about state parks.
4. Tourist guides of the city in which you teach.
5. A list of government agencies and community services in your city.
6. A picture file.
 - a. some of isolated objects
 - b. some of single subjects doing something or going somewhere
 - c. some of active groups
 - d. some "busy" pics—crowds, composites, etc.

TOM BUCKINGHAM

1. Michael West's *Teaching English Under Difficult Circumstances*. On my list because it was the first book that ever gave me help in teaching English—and because it still seems to me the best available in teaching English in a non-English speaking country, even though one of the oldest.

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2. Stevick, Earl. *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*. My own limited language experience keeps me from making much use of the appendices but the first three chapters are so full of insights on what makes material work that after years of using the book I am still "discovering" it.

3. Wilga Rivers and Mary Temperley. *A Practical Guide to Teaching English as a Second Language*.

4. William F. Mackey. *Language Teaching Analysis*. Out of date, unfortunately, but still the Sears Roebuck catalog of ESL/EFL.

5. Robinett, Betty Wallace. *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. The most balanced presentation of basics available.

6. Richards, Jack and John Oller. *Focus on the Learner*. Covers the current issues of interest.

7. Finocchiaro, Mary. *Teaching English as a Second Language From Theory to Practice*. The first, little book, not the later expanded one, because it is a good, clear, simply presented statement of what to do for the untrained, inexperienced.

8. Widdowson, Henry. *Teaching Language as Communication*. An inspired book—cuts through the nonsense and gets at what we should be thinking about.

9. *The Art of TESOL. Vols. I and II*. Good things not available elsewhere.

10. Heaton, J. B. *Language Testing*.

W. R. LEE

Here are the titles of ten books that a 'new' teacher of TEFL or TESL might find

useful. I have borne in mind that such a teacher might find himself or herself, in due course, teaching at any age-level or level of achievement in any part of the world; thus this is not a book-list for any kind of specialized training; nor is it a list, therefore, that will be equally suitable for 'new' teachers anywhere. It is a difficult problem you have set and I have tried to solve it by omitting books on linguistics and applied linguistics, on the English language itself, and on specific aspects of language learning and teaching (e.g. games, dramatization, songs, writing and reading skills, etc.), omissions on which I would normally regard as inexcusable. What remains is a list of 'broad' and general books, which include or touch on matters that every 'new' teacher should think about. Even so, the choice is arbitrary and some titles are missing that really should be there.

1. F. L. Billows: *The Techniques of Foreign Language Teaching* (Longman)
2. J. A. Bright and G. P. McGregor: *Teaching English as a Second Language* (Longman)
3. G. Broughton, C. Brumfit, R. Flavell, P. Hill, A. Pincas: *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (Routledge and Kegan Paul)
4. Mary Finocchiaro: *Teaching English as a Second Language* (Harper and Row)
5. A. S. Hornby: *The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns* (O.U.P.)
6. W. F. Mackey: *Language Teaching Analysis* (Longman)
7. Wilga M. Rivers and Mary S. Tem-

perley: *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language* (O.U.P.)

8. P. Strevens: *New Orientations in the Teaching of English* (O.U.P.)

9. H. G. Widdowson: *Teaching Language as Communication* (O.U.P.)

10. D. Wilkins: *Second-Language Learning and Teaching* (Arnold)

As for an additional four or five, I find it impossible to keep to that number, and suggest at least the following:

I. Dunlop: *Practical Techniques in the Teaching of Oral English* (Almqvist and Wiksell, Stockholm)

R. Lado: *Language Teaching—A Scientific Approach* (McGraw-Hill)

H. E. Palmer: *The Principles of Language Study* (O.U.P.)

F. C. Johnson: *English as a Second Language—an Individualized Approach* (Murray)

P. Gurrey: *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (Longman)

L. C. Kelly: *Twenty-Five Centuries of Language Teaching* (Newbury House)

Betty W. Robinett: *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (McGraw-Hill and University of Minnesota Press)

But really, wouldn't it be best for teachers in training to find a quiet corner in a good library to read in these books and other books? None of it will mean much, anyway, until they have done some teaching, quite a bit of teaching. So perhaps it would be better to possess a few practical books about drawing on the chalkboard (e.g. 'Draw It, Magistern', by A. Hermanson and B. Astrom—Svenska Bokforlaget,

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Sweden); games and dramatisation (e.g. L. A. Hill's *English Language Teaching Games for Adult Students*, Evans; and *Drama Techniques in Language Learning* by A. Maley and A. Duff, C.U.P.). But again, what the 'new' teacher really needs is to browse over a number of such books and select what he or she requires and is interested in at the time.

In listing *articles* one is forced to be even more arbitrary. Herewith a small number of fairly 'general' articles that 'new' teachers might find interesting:

R. A. Close, 'Banners and Bandwaggon', *ELT Journal*, 31, 2, 1977.

D. Girard, 'Motivation: the Responsibility of the Teacher', *ELT Journal*, 31, 2, 1977.

A. H. King, 'Notes on remedial English at higher-education level', *ELT Journal*, 27, 3, 1973.

P. Muggleston, 'The Primary Curiosity Motive', *ELTJ*, 31, 2, 1977.

J. Forrester, 'Demonstration lessons', *ELTJ*, 29, 1, 1974.

L. Greer, 'Teacher Training Projects', *ELTJ*, 31, 2, 1977.

P. Wingard, 'Teaching practice', *ELTJ*, 29, 1, 1974.

B. Pattison, 'Research priorities', *ELTJ*, 25, 1, 1970.

I. Schmidt-Mackey, 'Repetition within a context', *ELTJ*, 21, 3, 1967.

W. R. Lee, 'For and against an early start', *Foreign Language Annuals*, 10, 3, 1977.

—, 'Syllabus Construction for Foreign-Language Teaching: Reconciling the Approaches', *ELT Documents*, London.

J. L. Trim, 'Modern languages in education, with special reference to a projected European unit? credit system', Council of Europe *EES Symposium* 57, 3, 1973.

M. Macmillan, 'In defence of English', *ELTJ*, 27, 3, 1973.

A. L. W. Rees, 'Getting questions asked', *ELTJ*, 30, 4, 1946.

Christina B. Paulston, 'The sequencing of structural pattern drills', *TESOL Quarterly*, 5, 1971.

R. L. Allen, 'Using Drills Creatively', *English Teaching Forum*, 10, 6, 1972.

Florence Stratton, 'Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its Place', *TESOL Quarterly* 11, 2, 1977.

R. V. White, 'Telling What Happened', *TESOL Quarterly*, 11, 3, 1977.

However, once again, it would be best for the teacher in training, or 'new' teacher, to consult back issues of *English Teaching Forum*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *ELT Journal*, *Modern English Teacher*, etc., in pursuit of his or her own needs, lines of interest, etc.

EARL STEVICK

Thanks for your invitation to make suggestion for a "basic" library for new ESL/EFL teachers. As you said in your letter, it's hard to know where to stop in such a list. I will therefore attach great weight to your two words: a *basic* library for *new* teachers. On that ground I have eliminated much that I consider to be merely "excellent," "invaluable" and "indispensable" for the fully formed teacher.

I would begin, as I have said several times in the past, with a book which sets out what a teacher or a learner may (and may not) reasonably try to do, and which does so without distracting the reader's attention from essentials by talking about language classes: W. Timothy Gallwey's *The Inner Game of Tennis*.

Second, I would move to a book written by a gifted language teacher, but written long enough ago so that it would not immediately draw the reader into present-day issues and controversies: Otto Jespersen's *How to Teach a Foreign Language*.

Third, I would go to something which is more recent, but which is old enough to give a longish perspective on what we are doing now: Wilga Rivers' *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*. The issues that Rivers deals with in this book are no longer the focus of attention in the profession as they were when she wrote, but they will always be with us, and the clarity of her treatment is exemplary.

Fourth, I would ask a new teacher to read the introduction to Maley and Duff's *Drama Techniques in Language Learning*. These few pages are unmatched, as far as I know, for brevity and clarity in sketching what there is to be taught and learned besides sounds, words and grammar.

By now, I think the reader would be ready for a book which describes one good solid method, and describes it with both clarity and conviction. One such book is Paulston and Bruder's *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures*.

Then a sampling of what can be done with live and lively bits of communication by and for native speakers: the *Student's Book* written by Abbs and Sexton for the *Challenges* course published by Longman.

About here, the reader-teacher ought to look at something by Krashen that draws a distinction between adult "learning" and adult "acquisition" of a second language, and lists some of the characteristics of "acquisition": probably his *Language Acquisition and Second Language Teaching*.

This would be a good time for the new teacher to go on and sample the multiple techniques which make up the bulk of the Maley and Duff book.

Then s/he might look at a clear and clarifying treatment of theory: Diller *On the Language Teaching Controversy*;

and at her/himself in relation to teaching, through Jersild's *When Teachers Look at Themselves*;

and last, at teachers and learners as human beings, through Martin Buber's essays "On Education" and "On the Education of Character" (in *Between Man and Man*).

As I said in the first paragraph, I have taken you literally and concentrated on "basics" that have been of help to me. From these, the new teacher may go on to books that provide an introduction to such essentials as phonetics, grammatical analysis, and testing.

I need hardly point out that these books are "basic" only for people who would like to become the kind of teacher that I would like to become.

*John—I'm not sure whether this has actually been published.

JOHN HASKELL

These may not be the best, they certainly are not the only books one might choose, but they are basic, practical, and provide a well-rounded library to begin with.

1. Robinett, Betty W. *Teaching ESOL: Substance and Technique*. The first books since Nida to spell out what elements of English need to be known by and taught by the teacher; syntax, pronunciation, and word formation—and how to do it.

2. Pauston, Christina, and Mary Bruder. *Teaching ESL: Techniques and Procedures*. A good practical cook book that says things no one else says.

3. Crowell, Thomas L. *Index to Modern English*. Of all the grammars this is the easiest to use for a new teacher.

4. Valette, Rebecca. *Modern Language Testing*. I like Heaton a lot, too, but this is so easy to get into.

5. Stevick, Earl. *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*. I like all of Stevick's works beginning with *Helping People Learn English*. Next to Virginia Allen he makes the most sense to me as a speaker to teachers. This particular book is so full that it is never old, and no one provides a better measure against which to judge materials than Stevick does in this book.

6. *TESOL Quarterly* and *TESOL Newsletter*. I think the best way to keep current in the field is to be a member of a professional organization that provides the kinds of publications that TESOL (or NCTE) provide.

7. Brown, H. Douglas. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (Prentice-Hall, 1979). Sure to be on everyone's list, next year, this book is very up-to-date and readable.

8. Illyin, Donna, and Thomas Tragardh. *Classroom Practices in Adult ESL*. A really good cookbook, the Fe Dacany or Mary Finocchiaro book of the 70's.

9. Hall, Edward. *The Silent Language* (and/or *The Hidden Dimension*) and/or *ESL in Bilingual Education* by Alatis and Twaddell. I had a hard time, here. Fortunately, Hall is a 'drugstore' paperback so maybe both are affordable. Everyone should read it. But my U.S. ESL teachers need to understand B1/BC, too and the Alatis and Twaddell book is a beginning.

10. Valette, Rebecca and Renee Disick. *Modern Language Performance Objectives*. Add this to Stevick as a basic 'teacher' book. Most teachers are desperate to know how to prepare a lesson, a unit, an exercise. This book helps a lot. Only Finocchiaro's *ESL: Theory to Practice* (old edition) comes close.

My additional books are added here basically because they seem to supplement best the above books (and did not occur on anyone else's list). Again, they are books I have used and continue to find useful.

Shaughnessy, Mina. *Errors and Expectations: A Guide for the Teaching of Basic Writing*. Oxford, 1977.

Boatner, Gates and Makkai. *A Dictionary of American Idioms*. Barrons, 1975.

Moskowitz, Gertrude. *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class*. Newbury House, 1978.

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- Burt, Dulay and Finocchiaro. *Viewpoints on ESL*. Regents, 1977.
- Gordon and Wong. *A Manual for Speech Improvement*. Prentice-Hall, 1961.
- Dixon, Robert J. *Regents English Workbooks* (Vol. 1 & 2), 1956.
- And, if I could find them, the works of Virginia French Allen and those of Robert L. Allen.

SUMMARY

The intent of requesting these lists was to provide, hopefully, some general agreement as to what would be, say ten books that anyone could recommend to the beginning teacher. But there were no more than two dozen books which appeared on more than three lists, and over one third of the books listed fall generally into the classification of methods texts. Using Don Bowen's general format, I have subjectively and arbitrarily divided the entries into ten categories (and a few subcategories), because frequency alone would have left me with seven methods texts and a tie of fifteen books for eighth place. I have included in the categories below, the author, title, publisher, and date of publication of those two dozen books which were mentioned on more than three lists.

1. **General Methods Books.** Every list includes at least one method book, most of them two or more. Two texts were mentioned most often, in fact more often than any other books in any category; Betty Robinett's *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Substance and Technique* (McGraw-Hill 1978) and Rivers and Temperley's *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as Second or Foreign Language* (Oxford 1978). Paulston and Bruder's *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures* (Winthrop 1976) and Henry Widdowson's *Teaching Language as Communication* (Oxford 1978) were also mentioned on a number of lists.

Interestingly, five books, all of which might, at this point, be called Classic Audio-Lingual texts were also mentioned on a number of lists; Charles Fries' *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (U of Michigan Press 1945), Mary Finocchiaro's *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice* (Regents 1964, rev. 1974), Fe Dacanay's *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching* (Oceana Press 1963), and two collections of articles, Allen and Campbell's *Teaching English as a Second Language: A Book of Readings* (McGraw-Hill, 2nd Ed. 1972), and Anne Newton's collection of articles from the *English Teaching Forum* entitled *The Art of TESOL* (Newbury House 1978).

2. **Topical Methods Books.** Methods books could easily be divided into a number of subcategories subsuming even some of the arbitrarily established categories below such as Language and Culture, or Testing. Generally, one might say they were extensions of chapters from a General Methods text, such as those above, on Reading, Composition, etc. One such book mentioned on a number of lists was

Frank Smith's *Understanding Reading* (Holt Rinehart Winston 1971).

Curiously, even with the lack of favor that the teaching of pronunciation, per se, seems to presently find itself with, and the inclusion in every methods book of at least one chapter on the teaching of pronunciation, most lists included an additional book on some area of pronunciation. Two books, both teaching texts, were mentioned most frequently; Prator and Robinett's *A Manual of American English Pronunciation* (1972) and Don Bowen's *Pattern of English Pronunciation* (Newbury House 1975). Nilson and Nilson's *Pronunciation Contrasts in English* (Simon and Schuster 1971) also appeared on a number of lists.

Another kind of subcategory for topical methods texts might be those which promote a particular method or approach to language teaching/acquisition. Although a number of such books were mentioned only once, Van Ek's *The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools* (Longmans 1978) appeared on more than three lists.

3. **Grammar and Linguistics.** Bowen divides Grammar into pedagogical (or teaching) grammars and reference grammars, and I have added a third subcategory, linguistics books. While none of the volumes which might be called teaching grammars such as Crowell, Praninskis or Hornby were mentioned more than twice, almost all lists include one of these and/or one of two short versions of Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik's *Grammar of Contemporary English*; Quirk and Greenbaum's, *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English* (Harcourt Brace Jovanovich 1972) or Leech and Svartvik's, *A Communication Grammar of English* (Longman 1975).

Some lists suggested a general linguistics reference for the basic library, such as Bolinger, but no general consensus could be made.

4. **Testing.** While most methods or collections contain chapters on testing, many lists contained at least one volume in addition, either a reference volume or a collection of current trends. The two books most frequently mentioned were David Harris' *Testing English as a Second Language* (McGraw-Hill 1969) and J. B. Heaton's *Writing English Language Tests: A Practical Guide for Teachers of English as a Second or Foreign Language* (Longman 1975).

5. **Current Trends.** While there were a number of current collections of articles mentioned the single book in this category that was most often mentioned was Earl Stevick's *Memory, Meaning and Method* (Newbury House 1978). A number of lists suggested the *TESOL Quarterly* and the *TESOL Newsletter*, as sources of current information.

6. **Materials.** It was hard to justify this category, but the two books included here occurred on so many lists that it was selected as a separate category. Also the topic did not seem to be a regular chapter in the methods books. Other books were also mentioned but two were most often listed; Earl Stevick's *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons* (Foreign Service Institute 1971) and Madsen and Bower's *Adaptation in Language Teaching* (New-

bury House 1978).

7. **Teacher Reference.** This was for almost all lists, dictionary, though almanac and atlas, even grammar might also fit here. No American English monolingual dictionary was a particular favorite, nor any particular pronunciation or idiom dictionary. Both the Oxford and Longmans (British English) dictionaries were mentioned on a number of lists as ESL dictionaries.

8. **Language and Culture.** There were no books mentioned frequently enough in this category to list here. In fact, I found books on bilingual education, sociolinguistics, or language and culture curiously missing from most lists. Edvard Hall's books were most often mentioned.

9. **Supplementary Materials.** Games, songs, activities, etc. Here, again, no one book seemed to stand out even though some such volume was suggested on a large number of lists.

10. **Miscellaneous.** Other categories come to mind: Methodologies, texts on specific methods; English for Special Purposes; Textbook series, etc. I called the 10th category miscellaneous because there was one book mentioned by a number of lists that did not seem to fit into any of the other categories or sub-categories and that was Kelly's *25 Centuries of Language Teaching* (a boring book). There is no intention, I might add, of suggesting in these ten categories that one book should be selected from each one, so in summary:

(1) General methods (choose at least one, preferably one of the more current volumes. Add as many others as you can as part of your first ten or supplemental to it. Be sure to include (or at least read) somewhere along the line, one of the 'classic' audio-lingual texts or collections. (2) Topical Methods. Choose at least one book from this category, one that will best supplement category 1. (3) Grammar and Linguistics. Choose at least one good reference book on grammar either from the teaching type or general reference. Pick one from the other subcategory of grammar later on. Somewhere along the line, either take a course in linguistics or get a readable general linguistics text. (4) Testing. Choose one book either as a general reference on types of tests or as a supplement to your methods books, on current trends in testing. (5) Current Events. Choose at least one current volume in this area. (Join TESOL and get the *Quarterly* and the *Newsletter* annually). (6) Materials. Choose one book that tells you how to make materials. (7) Teacher Reference. Have a good dictionary and learn how to use it. Add other reference volumes as you can. (8) Language and Culture. Find at least one good book in language and culture, bilingual education, kinesics, or some such subtopic in this category. (9) Supplementary Materials. Find some volume that can supplement your textbook; games, activities, skits, exercises, etc. (10) Miscellaneous. Skip this category in favor of adding another book from one of the preceding nine categories. (Unless you want to choose something like Gallwey or Rosten.) It is perhaps redundant to note here that at least one volume each by Robinett, Bowen and Stevick seems to be generally a good bet.

A NOTE ON TEACHING AND MAKING SENSE

By Richard L. Light
SUNY at Albany

As teachers of English to speakers of other languages, we seem, perhaps more than others, to be constantly exploring new ways of viewing the teaching and learning of our subject. Competing beliefs and assumptions about the nature of language and the nature of learning are exchanged with enthusiasm in our journals and at our meetings. In turn, the language teaching activities that follow from these beliefs and assumptions are incredibly diverse and under constant scrutiny. A glance at the programs for our meetings reveals some of the exciting diversity in the field of ESL. This enthusiastic exchange of ideas and willingness to examine new options in second language teaching is bound to be healthy; it is certainly exciting.

In the process of keeping abreast of these developments we are continually examining this diversity of ideas and activities in second language teaching. And as everyone must, we attempt to bring our own organization to the diversity. At one point in our discussions at SUNY at Albany recently, we decided to make a list of some of the ideas and activities we had been reading about and to try to organize, interrelate, and make sense of the list. The list went like this: *audiolingual, strip story, counseling learning, pattern practice, visual aids, transformational-cognitive, silent way, conversation circle, space puzzle, community language learning, language experience approach* and *values clarification*. And of course we could have gone on.

So we had this nice interesting, messy list and we wanted to bring to it some organization in terms of our students' English language needs and our own language teaching activities. We wanted to make better "sense" of it. And since we all during the course of our teaching have heard about most of what is on this list, I thought it would be helpful to share some aspects of our discussion. Of course, we can't do justice here to Frank Smith's elegant description of the term "making sense" from his book *Comprehension and Learning*, but we will use the term in a way that is not inconsistent with his description. That is, we use it here as a term for relating new experience to what is known, and for organizing knowledge.

One of the sets of concepts with which we attempted to bring some organization to our messy list was one developed by Edward Anthony back in 1963. He suggested that we look at language teaching activities and the beliefs underlying them in terms of a hierarchical framework involving the categories *approach, method* and *technique*. *Approach*, he

suggested, is axiomatic, representing a set of beliefs about the nature of learning and the nature of language. Approach states a point of view, a philosophy—something which one believes but cannot necessarily prove. Applying this to our list above we suggested that counseling-learning, transformational-cognitive, and audiolingual are approaches, rooted respectively in beliefs regarding the relative importance of humanism, cognitivism, and behaviorism in explaining facts about learning. While approach is axiomatic, the next concept in Anthony's hierarchy—*method*—is procedural and it is consistent with an approach; it is an overall plan for teaching that is based on a selected approach. Within this framework, community language learning is a method consistent with the counseling learning approach. The use of the dialog/pattern practice combination on the other hand is a method generally associated with an audiolingual approach and behavioral views of learning. Following *method* in Anthony's scheme of analysis is the most specific category, that of *technique*. A *technique* is implementational and is consistent with method. It is what actually takes place in the classroom in terms of actions and technologies to accomplish immediate objectives. From our list then we would include under technique the strip story, use of specific visual aids to get meaning across, the conversation circle usually associated with community language learning, and the use of cuisinaire rods in the silent way. Also included under technique would be the exotic-sounding space puzzle on our list—actually a technique for teaching listening comprehension. So the concepts of approach, method and technique did provide us with one very useful set of lenses through which to view and begin to organize aspects of our list.

Another set of concepts, perhaps somewhat less clearly definable, is that of *learner-centered* activities and *teacher-centered* activities in the language classroom. It is a commonplace for us now to discuss learner-centered instruction, but Louis Kelly in his comprehensive book *Twenty Five Centuries of Language Teaching* does not discuss the distinction at all. One is tempted to draw the conclusion that for 2,500 years from 500 BC to 1969 (the date of Kelly's book) teacher-centered activities dominated the second language classrooms of the world. And this may still be a true picture of most classrooms in the world, yet in ESL at any rate, the learner-centered classroom is receiving more attention, especially in approaches such as counseling-learning and its application in community language learning. So the notions of learner-centered and teacher-centered classes (though necessarily somewhat

loosely defined) nonetheless were useful in helping us sort out characteristics of the items on our list. They proved helpful, for example, in attempting to answer questions such as which of the approaches, methods, and techniques on our list allowed for one or the other emphasis in the classroom.

Another set of concepts that we found useful in applying to our list was that of *skill-getting* and *skill-using*, two terms that have most recently been explicated by Rivers and Temperley in their 1978 ESL methods text. Skill-getting has traditionally involved teacher-directed activities such as repetition drills, pattern drills, and dialog recitation. Skill-using on the other hand involved student-initiated language exchanges for real communicative purposes. These concepts did help in making sense of our list, but like the others they had limitations. For example, one might assume that the skill-getting takes place primarily in a teacher-centered atmosphere, while skill-using happens some time later, mainly in a student-centered atmosphere with student-initiated language use. However, this is a somewhat oversimplified view, as we discovered when we examined our list through these two lenses. For example, in the conversation circle technique, which involves student-initiated but teacher-assisted language use, skill-getting and skill-using are closely intertwined. In this technique the student uses the target language immediately for real communication, but skill-getting takes place almost simultaneously as the teacher assists by modeling the language the student has chosen. Thus this student-centered conversation circle technique allows for both skill-getting and skill-using to proceed hand in hand.

So in our discussions we have found these categories of *approach/method/technique*, of *teacher-centered* and *student-centered* activity, and of *skill-getting* and *skill-using* to be helpful in trying to interrelate the ideas on our list. Of course a set of categories for making sense of teaching English is presumably open-ended and categories are likely to be added as one continues to study. Stevick (*Adapting & Writing Language Lessons*, 1971) for example has enumerated his own rather extensive set of some 15 categories for analyzing language teaching lessons, including such items as usability, organization, and "responsiveness" (or relevance). And our set of categories is open-ended in another quite obvious sense. As we participate in teaching English to speakers of other languages, we all bring our own categories to bear on what we see and hear. And organizing and understanding the wealth of ideas and activities available for doing our job is what teaching English and making sense is all about.

THE LES CHILD IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SCIENCE CLASS

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE TEACHER

Joyce Gilmour Zuck
E.L.I., Univ. of Michigan

The probability that a classroom teacher will have one or two limited English speaking children in his classes continues to increase. When there are small numbers of children of any one language background, supplementary materials are not provided. Recently a group of elementary school science teachers asked me to make general suggestions for the teacher or volunteer tutor in such a situation. I was given the school district's curriculum packet on LIGHT as an example of the available materials. Based on the Ann Arbor Public School's science program, my suggestions fell into two major points.

I. Minor modification resulted in very appropriate lessons for the limited English student.

II. Many problems were the result of divergent cultural expectations rather than deficiencies in English.

Modification of existing materials

The following suggestions can be easily implemented on the spot by the classroom teacher, a volunteer tutor or even a peer from the class.

1. Put important ideas in writing. The student can look at the written ideas at a later time. Often students who understand the explanation in class are unable to remember the important facts because of their limited second language memory. Also, the written ideas can often be translated by an older child, tutor, or parent to check comprehension. The child should be encouraged to make a bilingual dictionary of the important terms he encounters in class.

2. Provide an outline of the structure of the lesson, reading or film. The learner can organize his expectations if the structure is made explicit to him in advance. The structure can be made by writing a sentence outline of the passage using exact sentences from the text whenever possible. Key vocabulary words appear to be best presented in the order in which they appear rather than as alphabetical lists of nouns, verbs, adjectives and the like.

3. Multi-media materials. Non-native readers have been shown to benefit from the redundancy provided by visual images in the form of pictures, charts, films, etc. Film strips and non-verbal films are usually self-sufficient without any sound-track. Bilingual tutors could be asked to make a cassette in the student's native language to accompany a film strip related to a specific content lesson. The student should be provided with questions to answer when he works with vis-

ual material so that he knows when he has understood well enough.

4. Modify existing activity sheets. Many activity sheets provided in curriculum packets can be made available to the limited English speaking student by providing additional clues and information. In the LIGHT packet which I examined, the majority of exercises could be modified by simply adding a list of words to be used for each of the fill-in-the-blanks, word finds, and crossword puzzles. By narrowing down the choices, the teacher puts less of a load on the second language memory and allows the student to practice the same material in the same way as his classmates. Classes which utilize a modified buddy system could have a peer make the word list; rotated peer teaching usually not only increases learning but also increases interaction and understanding among the students.

5. Start a sharing file. It is useful to keep a file in the school library or in the curriculum office for each major unit that you modify. This file should contain simplified exercises, readings at different proficiency levels, and references to visual materials. Once such a file is started, it is amazing how often you discover materials to add to it.

The major point to be made in the first part of this list of suggestions is that much of the material that is already available is appropriate to use for the occasional ESL student who has been immersed in an English speaking educational system. However, teachers should be aware that many of the problems created in the science classroom are not the result of inadequate language but rather the result of different educational expectations.

Recognition of educational differences.

As I examined the LIGHT packet with its emphasis on activities, games and ditto materials, I realized that the biggest problem for the science teacher is the approach to education which appears to differ significantly from many other approaches throughout the world. Obviously, teachers cannot be aware of the educational practices of all the countries from which they may have students; however, they should be aware that different practices may be a greater cause of confusion to the student than his language ability. This type of problem increases with the number of years of education a child may have had in his own cultural environment but it exists to some degree for all students. Some potential problem areas are listed below.

1. Emphasis on memorization. In many countries of the world, education is heavily reliant on book learning and the student is expected to memorize the material provided in his book. Students who are accustomed to the use of a single

book find it very difficult to synthesize material from books, lab manuals, handouts, etc.

2. Education as serious work. Students are often puzzled by the use of films, games, and other activities which do not seem to them to be the proper way to learn in school.

3. Authoritarian education. If the teacher asks a question, there is expected to be a single right answer. Students are often upset when they are asked to hypothesize or speculate; they think that the teacher is withholding information when he asks, "What do you think will happen?"

4. Non-experimental education. The emphasis on the experimental process is often confusing to students who have been taught that the information is more important than how it was discovered. They have come to expect that they cannot perform an experiment as well as the scientist in his laboratory and they do not understand why they are asked to try.

Supplementary material

Some sources of useful information for elementary school science teachers are listed below.

- a. *National Geographic World*
- b. *Reader's Digest Science Readings*
- c. Hauptman, Philip and Jack Upshur *Fun with English*. (New York: Collier McMillan, 1975.) Good examples exercises for word games.
- d. Thelen, Judith. *Improving Reading in Science*. (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1976)

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RESEARCH REPORTS

A two-day colloquium on written discourse will be held March 4-5, 1980, San Francisco, CA, at the TESOL 1980 convention. GRADUATE STUDENTS are invited to submit abstracts on various aspects of written discourse, including applied and theoretical investigations into native and non-native written discourse. Preference given to *data-based* research. Submit original and one copy of your abstract. Write your name, address, and the title of your report on a 3 x 5 card, and slip it to the abstract. Enclose a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Abstracts should be no longer than one page, typed double-space, and should indicate the title of the report. Abstract deadline: January 15, 1980. If selected, presenters are expected to register for the colloquium. In addition to graduate student presentations, the two-day writing colloquium will include presentations by invited researchers who will also respond to the graduate student research reports. Send abstracts to: Joyce Zuck and Sandra Oster, Writing Colloquium Co-Chair, The English Language Institute, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48109.

IT WORKS

TALK MARATHON

by Laurie Asher Meagher

A frequent complaint of foreign language teachers is the lack of motivation in the majority of their students. Although the audiolingual method places heavy emphasis on pattern and substitution practice, there is actually very little time designated in texts for the use of the target language as a means of communication. Since communication is the central purpose of language, it becomes the teacher's problem to stimulate themselves verbally in the classroom environment. I have recently devised an exercise which develops not only oral self-expression skills, but also incorporates aural discrimination and an opportunity for the students to correct their own grammar and pronunciation.

The method is a simple one based on my observation of the Spanish I and II classes which I teach at the Belmont (Mass.) High School. This observation showed me the joy students feel while competing between teams or individuals. The desire to win, or to identify with a winner, is common in adolescent behavior as is illustrated at sports pep rallies and games. This desire to win is the key to the success of this language learning exercise. The wish to win even overrides the self-consciousness that students feel when they have to speak the foreign language. The exercise is approached in the following manner.

The class is divided evenly into two teams. The students are told that the object of the game is for their team to talk the longest. The use of a digital watch is essential as the students tend to argue over seconds. The first student of the starting team begins to talk in the language on any theme he or she can think of, but which must be continued for at least five sentences. No more than five seconds is permitted between thoughts. If an English word is used or if five seconds occur without a sentence, the student is cut off, and the next student on the same team begins a monologue, and so on until the entire team has talked. Lists of names, days, months, and numbers may not be used. Each team is timed, and after comparing scores, a winner is named.

The competition must be recorded on audiotape or videotape. The recording is essential in order to reap the benefits and create a valuable lesson from the game. The recording is also the means by which the students will correct their grammar and pronunciation upon completion of the competition. The tape is

replayed and the monologues are reviewed sentence by sentence. When an error is heard the tape is stopped and the student must attempt to correct it. If this cannot be done, volunteers are taken from the class. The teacher fills in any mistake not detected by the others. Also, with the use of the tape, each team can judge which individual talked the longest allowing another play-off if desired. Such competitions can also extend into interclass tournaments.

The most important task for the teacher is to refrain from correcting the student during the monologue. The process works because of its 'stream of consciousness' effect, and if the stream is broken, so is the momentum and confidence the student has built up. Before the contest begins the students should be reminded to use basic thoughts and actions and then elaborate with adjectives and prepositional phrases. An example of a frequent pattern is:

Susana compra una casa.
La casa es muy bonita.
Sus amigas están en la casa.
Hablan en la cocina y Susana prepara la cena.
La cena es deliciosa.

In this example the student is using the house and what goes on inside the house as the theme. After the initial five sentences, the student can go to another

theme although the same theme is usually continued. Sometimes it is hard to determine when a student strays from the theme. It is up to the discretion of the referee-teacher since the game is as flexible as it needs to be.

It may appear that this exercise will be too long for a 45 minute period with a class of thirty, but the longest a student has talked in the initial stage of the game has been for three minutes. This increases slightly with each additional contest. The game is often a good way to start the class because it breaks the self-conscious barriers to the speaking skill.

The rewards of this exercise are very satisfying for the teacher and especially for the average students who are often surprised at their achievement. The team or individual may be granted a material reward as well. A laudatory note to parents commenting on proficiency, an extra credit grade, or an ice cream creates additional positive reinforcement which in turn will stimulate motivation.

Note: *Talk Marathon* has been reprinted with permission from the author Laurie Asher Meagher, Department of Foreign Languages, Boston College. It first appeared in the *Newsletter/6* of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, September, 1979, page 12.

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